THE HISTORY OF SOUTH AMERICA.

CONTAINING THE

DISCOVERIES of COLUMBUS,

THE

CONQUEST of MEXICO and PERU,

AND THE

Other Tranſactions of the SPANIARDS

IN THE

NEW WORLD.

By the Rev. Mr. COOPER.

Embelliſhed with Copper-plate Cuts.

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PREFACE.

THE Hiſtory of South America, like all other hiſtories of newly diſcovered countries, has been ſo intervowen with fable, as in ſome meaſure to deter the youthful ſtudent from employing his time in the purſuit of *Trifles*; for in that light fabulous hiſtories muſt generally be conſidered.

The Spaniſh Adventurers to the New World were moſtly illiterate men, whoſe principal purſuits were gold and ſilver. On their return to their native ſtate, their repreſentations were guided by intereſt and vanity; and, aſhamed of having made no obſervations on the rude arts, manufactures, and genius, of the people they had conquered, they fabricated ſtories the moſt wild, romantic and ridiculous,

to which the Spaniſh writers of thoſe days gave a helping hand.

The literary world is undoubtedly much obliged to the labour, genius, and attention, of Dr. Robertſon, whoſe extenſive and polite connections enabled him to procure information for his Hiſtory of America, which few other individuals could perhaps have obtained. We have therefore carefully conſulted and followed that work, by the aſſiſtance of which we may venture to ſay, that we have now the pleaſure of laying before our youthful Readers ſuch an epitome of *The Hiſtory of South America* as may by no means be conſidered as fabulous, but as founded on the moſt authentic materials and authorities.

CONTENTS.

CHAP. I.

Origin of navigation.—Introduction of commerce.—Rude ſtate of navigation among the ancients.—State of navigation and commerce among the Egyptians,—Phenicians,—Jews,—Carthaginians,—Greeks, and Romans.—Diſcoveries of the ancients by land.—Imperfect ſtate of Geography among the ancients.—Commerce preſerved in the Eaſtern empire.—Revival of commerce and navigation in Europe.—The cruſades favourable to commerce.—The invention of the mariners compaſs.—Firſt regular plan of diſcovery.—The Portugueſe double Cape Non.—Diſcovery of Porto Santo,—Of Madeira.—The Portugueſe double Cape Bojador, and advance within the tropics.—The Cape de Verd Iſlands and the Azores diſcovered.—The Portugueſe croſs the line,—They diſcover the Cape of Good Hope. . . P. 1.

CHAP. II.

Birth and education of Columbus,—He enters into the ſervice of the Portugueſe,—He forms the idea of a new courſe to India,—He applies to the Genoeſe,—Then to Portugal, and afterwards to Spain,—Propoſes his plan to Henry VIII. of England,—His treaty with

with Spain,—He ſets ſail on his voyage,—His crews are filled with alarms and apprehenſions.—Land diſcovered.—Firſt interview with the natives.—Columbus aſſumes the Title of admiral and vice-roy,—He diſcovers Cuba and Hiſpaniola.—Loſes one of his ſhips,—His diſtreſſes,—Reſolves to return to Europe,—Arrives in Spain, and receives the higheſt marks of honour.—He ſets ſail on his ſecond voyage,—Builds the town of Iſabella,—Diſcovers the iſland of Jamaica.—The Indians take arms againſt the Spaniards.—Columbus attacks and defeats them.—He taxes them.—Returns to Spain.—He ſets ſail a third time.—He diſcovers Trinidad.—Troubles at St. Domingo.—The Portugueſe ſail to the Eaſt-Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope.—From whom the name of AMERICA was given to the New World.—The Portugueſe diſcover the Braſil.—Columbus ſent in chains to Spain.—Is there ſet at liberty.—Sails a fourth time on diſcoveries.—Is wrecked on the coaſt of Jamaica.—Death of Columbus. 25

CHAP. III.

State of the colony in Hiſpaniola.—New diſcoveries and ſettlements.—Diego Columbus appointed governor of Hiſpaniola.—

niola.—Sets ſail for that iſland.—New diſcoveries made.—Attempts made to ſettle on the continent.—Diſcovery of Florida.—Diſcoveries of Balboa.—He enters the South Sea,—And returns.—Pedrarias Davila appointed governor of Darien.—His bad conduct.—Balboa publickly executed, through the treachery and intrigues of Pedrarias.—Further attempts at diſcovery.—The ſtate of Hiſpaniola under Don Diego Columbus.—Death of Ferdinand, and acceſſion of Charles the Fifth.—New diſcoveries made towards the Weſt.—Diſcovery of Yucatan.—Are attacked by the Indians, and defeat them.—The Spaniards quit that place.—Arrive at Campeachy.—Meet with a defeat on landing to take in water, and are forced to return to Cuba.—Voyage of Juan de Grijalva.—He diſcovers New Spain.—Touches at Tabaſco, and then at Guaxaca.—Lands on the iſle of Sacrifices, and then touches at St. Juan de Ulua. . 51

CHAP. IV

Vaſt extent of the New World.—Its prodigious mountains.—Rivers and Lakes.—Temperature of the climate.—Its original rude ſtate.—Its animals.—Inſects and reptiles.—Birds.—Soil.—How was America firſt peopled?—

Character and condition of the original Americans.—The first discoverers of the New World mostly illiterate men.—The bodily constitution of the South Americans. — Their complexion. — Have small appetites.—None of them deformed.—State of their health and diseases.—Power and qualities of their minds.—The active efforts of their minds few and languid. — Domestic union.—The condition of the American women humiliating and miserable.—Parental affection and filial duty.—Mode of subsistence.—Fishing, hunting, and agriculture.—The Americans divided into small communities.—Had no notion of property.—Their method of carrying on war.—Their dress and ornaments.—Habitations.—Their arms—Domestic utensils and cookery.—Their canoes. — Ideas of Religion. — Their physicians, — Dancing, gaming, and drinking, their favourite amusements.—Destroy the aged and incurable.—Their general character. 76

CHAP. V.

Velasquez makes preparations for the invasion of New Spain.—Ferdinando Cortes undertakes the command of that expedition.—His forces.—Cortes sets sail with his little armament. —Arrives

—Arrives in Mexico.—Rich presents sent from Montezuma to Cortes.—Character of Montezuma.—Cortes resigns his commission, and is chosen by his officers and followers chief-justice and captain-general of the new colony.—He proceeds to Zimpoalla. — From thence to Quiabislan.—Builds a town there, and forms alliances.—Cortes destroys his own fleet.—Advances into the country.—Concludes a peace with the Hascalans. — Sets out for Mexico.—The Spaniards astonished at the distant view of that city.—First interview between Cortes and Montezuma.—Dangerous situation of the Spaniards in Mexico.—Montezuma seized as a prisoner, and carried to the Spanish quarters.—Montezuma's son, and five of his officers, burnt alive, by order of Cortes.—The Mexican monarch acknowledges himself to be a vassal of the king of Castile.—A new Spanish armament arrives at Mexico, fitted out by Velasquez to destroy Cortes —Cortes attacks Narvaez in the night, defeats his forces, and takes him prisoner.—The greater part of the Spanish prisoners enter into the service of Cortes.—The Mexicans take up arms against the Spaniards.—Montezuma slain by his own people.—Cortes abandons the city of Mexico.—The Mexicans defeat him.--

Is reduced almoſt to famine. — The battle of Otumba.—Cortes receives conſiderable reinforcements.—Builds and launches ſeveral brigantines on the lake.—The brigantines defeat the Mexican canoes on the lake.—Attacks the city of Mexico, Cortes defeated and wounded, forty of his men taken, and ſacrificed to the god of war.—Cortes again attacks the city, and takes the emperor priſoner.—The Spaniards much diſappointed in their expectations of the riches the conqueſt of this city would afford them.—Cruel treatment of the emperor—The whole province of Mexico ſubdued by the Spaniards.—The ſtraits of Magellan diſcovered. — Death of Magellan.—Cortes appointed captain-general and governor of New Spain.—Sets out for the court of Caſtile.—The reception he meets with there.—Returns to New Spain, and diſcovers California.—Death of Cortes. 103

CHAP. VI.

Firſt attempts to diſcover Peru unſucceſsful.—Pizarro, Almagro, and Luque, undertake that buſineſs.—Pizarro ſets ſail from Panama on his firſt expedition.—Experiences great hardſhips.—Diſcovers Peru. — The Spaniards are ſurpriſed at the riches and fertility of that country.—Return to Panama.—Pizarro

Pizarro is ſent to Spain, where he gets himſelf appointed captain-general, &c, of the new diſcoveries.—Pizarro ſails on another expedition, and lands in Peru.—Commences hoſtilities.—Limits of the the Peruvian empire.—A civil war rages in Peru at the time of the arrival of the Spaniards.—Pizarro turns that circumſtance to his advantage.—State of his forces.——Arrives at Caxamalca.——Treacherouſly ſeizes on the perſon of the Inca.—Maſſacre of the Peruvians.—Almagro arrives with reinforcements.—Diviſion of the immenſe ranſom of the Peruvian Inca.—The Inca put to death.—Pizarro leaves Caxamalca, and marches to Cuzco.—He takes poſſeſſion of that capital, and ſeizes on immenſe treaſures.—Pizarro ſets out for Spain—His reception there.—Sets out on his return to Peru.—Settles differences there with his aſſociate Almagro.—Pizarro builds the city of Lima.—Almagro marches towards Chili.—An inſurrection in Peru.—The Peruvians beſiege Cuzco.—Engage Almagro, and are defeated.—Civil war among the Spaniards.—Almagro defeated, tried, condemned, and executed.—Progreſs of the Spaniſh arms.—Chili conquered.——Treachery and ingratitude of Orellana.—Miſerable condition of the followers of Pizarro, in conſequence of that treachery.—

ry.—Francifco Pizarro murdered in his palace.—Almagro proclaimed governor of the city.—Vaca de Caftro arrives at Quito, and affumes the name of governor.—Difputes between him and Almagro.—The emperor reforms the government of his American dominions.—Sends over a vice-roy, who is killed in battle.—Pedro de la Gafca fent out as prefident of Peru.—Gonzalo Pizarro affumes the government, oppofes Gafca, is defeated, tried, and put to death.—Gafco fets out for Spain.—His reception there. 133

CONCLUSION.

Political inftitutions and national manners of the Mexicans and Peruvians.—Origin of the Mexican monarchy.—The city of Mexico, when founded.—Splendour and power of their monarchs.—Their wars.—Funeral rites.—Agriculture.—Temples, and other public buildings.—Religion of the Mexicans.—Peruvian antiquity doubtful.—Abfolute power of their Incas ——The filver mines of Ptofi.—— The Peruvian wars conducted with humanity.—Their improved ftate of agriculture.—Tafte in their buildings.—The Peruvians of an unwarlike fpirit. 161

THE

THE

HISTORY

OF

SOUTH AMERICA.

CHAP. I.

SO nice and complicated are the arts of navigation and ſhip-building, that they require the ingenuity and experience of many ſucceeding ages, to bring them to any tolerable degree of perfection. The raft or canoe, which at firſt ſerved to convey a ſavage over a river, that obſtructed him in the chaſe, gave riſe to the invention of conſtructing a veſſel capable of carrying a number of people in ſafety to a diſtant coaſt. Many efforts were made, many experiments were tried, and much labour and invention employed, before this important undertaking was accompliſhed.

In proportion as the art of navigation encreaſed, men became more acquainted

with each other, and a commercial intercourſe commenced between remote nations. Men muſt have made ſome conſiderable advancements towards civilization, before they acquired the idea of property, and aſcertained it ſo perfectly, as to be acquainted with the moſt ſimple of all contracts, that of exchanging by barter one rude commodity for another. However, as ſoon as this important right was eſtabliſhed, and every individual felt, that he had an excluſive title to poſſeſs or alienate whatever he had acquired by his own labour or dexterity, the wants and ingenuity of his nature ſuggeſted to him, a new method of encreaſing his acquiſitions and enjoyments, by diſpoſing of what appeared to him ſuperfluous, in order to procure what was neceſſary or deſirable in the poſſeſſion of others.

As navigation and commerce extended, ſo in courſe did the intercourſe of remote nations. The ambition of conqueſt, or the neceſſity of procuring new ſettlements, were no longer the ſole motives of viſiting diſtant lands. The deſire of gain became a new ſpur to activity, rouſed adventurers, and ſent them out on long voyages, in the purſuit of countries, whoſe produce or want might encreaſe that circulation, which nouriſhes and gives vigour to commerce. Trade proved a great ſource of

diſcovery,

discovery, it opened unknown ſeas, it penetrated into new regions, and contributed more than any other cauſe, to bring men acquainted with the ſituation, the nature, and commodities of the different regions of the earth.

The ſtructure of the veſſels uſed by the ancients was very rude and imperfect, and their method of working them on the ocean was very defective. Though the property of the magnet, by which it attracts iron, was well known to the ancients, its more important and amazing virtue of pointing to the poles had entirely eſcaped their obſervation. Deſtitute of this faithful guide, which now conducts the pilot with ſo much certainty in the unbounded ocean, during the darkneſs of night, or when the heavens are covered with clouds, the ancients had no other method of regulating their courſe than by obſerving the ſun and ſtars. Their navigation was conſequently uncertain and timid. They dared not even to quit ſight of land, but crept along the coaſt, expoſed to all the dangers, and retarded by all the obſtructions, unavoidable in holding ſuch an aukward courſe. An incredible length of time was requiſite for performing voyages, which are now finiſhed in a ſhort ſpace. Even in the mildeſt climates, and in ſeas the leaſt tempeſtuous, it was

only during the ſummer months that the ancients ventured out of their harbours, the remainder of the year being loſt in inactivity.

The Egyptians, ſoon after the eſtabliſhment of their monarchy, are reported to have commenced a trade between the Arabian Gulph, or Red Sea, and the weſtern coaſt of the great Indian continent. The commodities, which they imported from the Eaſt were carried by land from the Arabian Gulph to the banks of the Nile, and conveyed down that river to the Mediterranean; but the fertile ſoil and mild climate of Egypt, producing all the neceſſaries and comforts of life, the Egyptians had no inducements to undertake long and hazardous voyages.

The Phenicians poſſeſſed a ſpirit more favourable to commerce and diſcovery than the Egyptians. They had not, like the natives of Egypt, any diſtinguiſhing peculiarity in their manners and inſtitutions; they were not addicted to any ſingular and unſocial form of ſuperſtition, and could mingle with other nations without ſcruple or reluctance. The territory they poſſeſſed was neither large nor fertile, and commerce was the only ſource from which they could derive opulence or power. The trade, therefore, carried on by the Phenicians of Sidon and Tyre was more

extenfive and enterprifing than that of any ftate in the ancient world. In many of the places to which they reforted, they planted colonies, and communicated to the rude inhabitants fome knowledge of their arts and improvements.

The Jews, encouraged by the riches they faw the Phenicians acquiring from commerce, feemed defirous to endeavour to partake of it. Solomon fitted out fleets, which under the direction of Phenician pilots, failed from the Red Sea to Tarfhifh and Ophir; but the fingular inftitution of the Jews, the obfervance of which was enjoined by their Divine Legiflator, with an intention of preferving them a feparate people, uninfected by idolatry, prevented their being numbered among the nations, which contributed to improve navigation, or to make any material or ufeful difcoveries.

The Carthagenians caught the fpirit of commerce from the Phenicians and Jews. The commonwealth of Carthage applied to trade and naval affairs with the greateft fuccefs. They extended their navigation chiefly towards the weft and north, and vifited not only all the coafts of Spain, but thofe of Gaul, and penetrated at laft into Britain. They made confiderable progrefs by land, into the interior provinces of Africa, traded with fome of

them, and ſubjected others to their empire. They ſailed along the weſtern coaſt of that great continent, almoſt to the tropick of Cancer, and placed ſeveral colonies, in order to civilize the natives, and accuſtom them to commerce.

It is evident that the Phenicians, who inſtructed the Greeks in many uſeful arts and ſciences, did not communicate to them that extenſive knowledge of navigation, which they themſelves poſſeſſed; nor did the Romans imbibe that commercial ſpirit and ardour for diſcovery, which diſtinguiſhed their rivals the Carthagenians. Though Greece be almoſt encompaſſed by the ſea, which formed many ſpacious bays and commodious harbours; though it be ſurrounded by a vaſt number of fertile iſlands, yet, nowithſtanding ſuch a favourable ſituation, which ſeemed to invite that ingenious people to apply themſelves to navigation, it was long before this art attained any degree of perfection among them. Even at the time, when the Greeks engaged in the famous enterprize againſt Troy, their knowledge in naval affairs ſeems not to have been much improved. Their veſſels were of inconſiderable burthen, and moſtly without decks. Theſe had only one maſt, and they were ſtrangers to the uſe of anchors. All their operations in ſailing were clumſy and unſkilful.

The

The expedition of Alexander the Great into the Eaſt, conſiderably enlarged the ſphere of navigation and of geographical knowledge among the Greeks. He founded a great city, which he called Alexandria, near one of the mouths of the river Nile, that by the Mediterranean ſea, and the neighbourhood of the Arabian Gulf, it might command the trade both of the Eaſt and Weſt. This ſituation was choſen with ſuch diſcernment, that Alexandria ſoon became the chief commercial city in the world.

The progreſs made by the Romans in navigation and diſcovery, was ſtill more inconſiderable than that of the Greeks. The genius of the Roman people, their military education, and the ſpirit of their laws, concurred to diſcourage them from commerce and naval affairs. It was the neceſſity of oppoſing a formidable rival, not the deſire of extending trade, which firſt prompted them to aim at maritime power.

As ſoon as the Romans acquired a taſte for the luxuries of the Eaſt, the trade with India through Egypt was puſhed with new vigour, and carried on to greater extent. By frequenting the Indian continent, navigators became acquainted with the periodical courſe of the winds, which, in the ocean that ſeparates Africa from

India,

India, blow with little variation during one half of the year from the eaſt, and during the other half blow with equal ſteadineſs from the weſt. Encouraged by this obſervation, they abandoned their ancient ſlow and dangerous courſe along the coaſt, and as ſoon as the weſtern monſoon ſet in, took their departure from Ocelis, at the mouth of the Arabian Gulf, and ſtretched boldly acroſs the ocean. The uniform direction of the wind, ſupplying the place of the compaſs, and rendering the guidance of the ſtars leſs neceſſary, conducted them to the port of Muſiris, on the weſtern ſhore of the Indian continent. There they took on board their cargo, and returning with the eaſtern monſoon, finiſhed their voyage to the Arabian gulf within the year. This part of India, now known by the name of the Malabar coaſt, ſeems to have been the utmoſt limits of ancient navigation in that quarter of the globe.

The diſcovery of this new method of ſailing to India, is the moſt conſiderable improvement in navigation made by the Romans during the continuance of their power. In ancient times, the knowledge of remote countries was more frequently acquired by land than by ſea; and the Romans, from their particular diſlike to maritime affairs, may be ſaid to have

totally neglected the latter, though a much more preferable way to make discoveries, being more easy and expeditious.

If we reject fabulous and obscure accounts, if we closely abide by the light and information of authentic history, without giving way to the conjectures of fancy, or the dreams of etymologists, we must conclude, that the knowledge which the ancients had acquired of the habitable globe was very confined and superficial. In Europe, the extensive provinces in the eastern part of Germany were little known to them. They were almost totally unacquainted with the vast countries which are now subject to the kings of Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, Poland, and the Russian empire. The more barren regions, which stretch within the arctic circle, were quite unexplored. In Africa, their researches did not extend far beyond the provinces which border on the Mediterranean, and those situated on the western shore of the Arabian gulf. In Asia, they were unacquainted with all the fertile and delightful countries beyond the Ganges, which furnish the most valuable commodities for the European commerce with India; nor do they seem to have ever penetrated into those immense regions, occupied by the wandering tribes, which they called by the general name of Scythians,

Scythians, and now poſſeſſed by Tartars of various denominations, and by the Aſiatic Ruſſian ſubjects.

But however imperfect or inaccurate the geographical knowledge which the Greeks and Romans had acquired may appear, in reſpect of the preſent improved ſtate of that ſcience, their progreſs in diſcovery will ſeem conſiderable, and the extent to which they carried navigation and commerce, muſt be conſidered as great, when compared with the ignorance of early times. Geography continued to improve under the Romans ſo long as they remained in their powerful ſtate; but when the barbarians broke in upon them, the conſequence of luxury and effeminacy, the ſciences then dwindled, and diſcoveries ceaſed to be made.

Conſtantinople, after the deſtruction of the Roman empire, though often threatened by the fierce invaders, who ſpread deſolation over the reſt of Europe, was ſo fortunate as to eſcape their deſtructive rage. The knowledge of ancient arts and diſcoveries were preſerved in that city, a taſte for ſplendour and elegance ſtill ſubſiſted, the productions and luxuries of foreign countries were in requeſt, and commerce continued to flouriſh in Conſtantinople, when it was almoſt extinct in every other part of Europe.

Much

Much about the ſame time, a gleam of light and knowledge broke in upon the Eaſt. The Arabians, having contracted ſome reliſh for the ſciences of the people whoſe empire they had contributed to overturn, tranſlated the books of ſeveral of the Greek philoſophers into their own language. The ſtudy of geography in courſe became an early object of attention to the Arabians; but that acute and ingenious people cultivated chiefly the ſpeculative and ſcientific parts of geography. In order to aſcertain the figure and dimenſions of our earth, they applied the principles of geometry, they had recourſe to aſtronomical obſervations, and employed experiments and operations, which Europe, in more enlightened times, have eagerly adopted and imitated.

The calamities and deſolation brought upon the weſtern provinces of the Roman empire by its barbarous conquerors, by degrees were forgotten, and in ſome meaſure repaired. The rude tribes which ſettled there, acquiring inſenſibly ſome idea of regular government, and ſome reliſh for the functions and comforts of civil life, Europe awakened, in ſome degree, from its torpid and inactive ſtate, the firſt ſymptoms of which were diſcerned in Italy. The acquiſition of theſe rouſed induſtry, and gave motion and vigour to

all the active powers of the human mind; foreign commerce revived, navigation was attended to, and great pains taken to improve it.

From that period, the commercial ſpirit of Italy became active and enterpriſing. Venice, Genoa, and Piſa, roſe from inconſiderable towns, to be populous and wealthy cities; their naval power encreaſed, their veſſels frequented not only all the ports in the Mediterranean, but venturing ſometimes beyond the ſtraits, viſited the maritime towns of Spain, France, the Low Countries, and England.

While the cities of Italy were thus advancing in their career of improvement, an event happened, the moſt extraordinary perhaps in the hiſtory of mankind, which, inſtead of obſtructing the commercial progreſs of the Italians, contributed to its encreaſe. The martial ſpirit of the Europeans, heightened and inflamed by religious zeal, prompted them to attempt the deliverance of the Holy Land from the dominion of Infidels. Vaſt armies, compoſed of all the nations in Europe, moved towards Aſia on this ſtrange enterpriſe. The Genoeſe, Piſans, and Venetians, furniſhed the tranſports to carry them thither, and ſupplied them with proviſions and military ſtores. Beſides the immenſe ſums which they received on this account, they

obtained

obtained commercial privileges and eſtabliſhments. From theſe ſources prodigious wealth flowed into the cities above mentioned. This was accompanied with a proportional encreaſe of power, and by the end of the Holy War, Venice, in particular, became a great maritime ſtate, poſſeſſing an extenſive commerce and ample territories.

Communications being thus opened between Europe and the weſtern provinces of Aſia, ſeveral perſons were encouraged to advance far beyond the countries, in which the cruſaders carried on their operations, and to travel by land into the more remote and opulent regions of the Eaſt. The wild fanaticiſms, which ſeem at that period to have mingled in all the ſchemes of individuals, no leſs than in all the councils of nations, firſt incited men to enter upon theſe long and dangerous excurſions. They were afterwards undertaken from proſpects of commercial advantage, or from motives of mere curioſity.

In the midſt of this riſing deſire for diſcovery, a very fortunate event took place, which contributed more than all the efforts and ingenuity of preceding ages, to improve and extend navigation. That wonderful property of the magnet, by which it communicates ſuch virtue to

a needle or ſlender rod of iron, as to point towards the poles of the earth, was happily diſcovered. The uſe which might be made of this in directing navigation, was immediately perceived. From hence, that moſt valuable, but now familiar inſtrument, the mariners compaſs, was formed. As ſoon as navigators found by means of this, that at all ſeaſons, and in every place, they could diſcover the North and South with ſo much eaſe and accuracy, it became no longer neceſſary to depend merely on the light of the ſtars, and the obſervation of the ſea-coaſt. They gradually abandoned their ancient timid and lingring courſe along the ſhore, launched boldly into the ocean, and relying on this new guide, could ſteer in the darkeſt night, and under the moſt cloudy ſky, with a ſecurity and preciſion hitherto unknown. The compaſs may be ſaid to have opened to man the dominion of the ſea, and to have put him in full poſſeſſion of the earth, by enabling him to viſit every part of it.

About the year 1365, Providence ſeemed to have decreed, that at this period men were to paſs the limits within which they had been ſo long confined, and open to themſelves a more ample field, wherein to diſplay their talents, their enterpriſe, and courage. The firſt conſiderable efforts towards this were not made by any of the

more

more powerful ſtates of Europe, or by thoſe who had applied to navigation with the greateſt aſſiduity and ſucceſs. The glory of taking the lead in this bold attempt was reſerved for the Portugueſe, whoſe kingdom was the ſmalleſt and leaſt powerful of any in Europe. As the attempts of the Portugueſe to acquire the knowledge of thoſe parts of the globe, with which mankind were then unacquainted, not only improved and extended the art of navigation, but rouſed ſuch a ſpirit of curioſity and enterpize, as led to the diſcovery of the New World, of which we are perſently to give the hiſtory.

Various circumſtances urged the Portugueſe to exert their activity in this new direction, and enabled them to accompliſh undertakings apparently ſuperior to the natural force of their monarchy. John I. king of Portugal, ſurnamed the Baſtard, having obtained ſecure poſſeſſion of the crown, in the year 1411, ſoon perceived, that it would be impoſſible to preſerve public order, or domeſtic tranquility, without finding ſome employment for the reſtleſs ſpirit of his ſubjects. With this view, he aſſembled a numerous fleet at Liſbon, compoſed of all the ſhips he could fit out in his own kingdom, and of many hired from foreigners. This great armament, fitted out in 1412, was deſtined to attack

the Moors ſettled on the coaſt of Barbary. While the fleet was equipping, a few veſſels were appointed to ſail along the weſtern ſhore of Africa, bounded by the Atlantic ocean, and to diſcover the unknown countries ſituated there.

The peculiar ſituation of Portugal was an invitation to this new undertaking, and the genius of the age being favourable to the execution of it, it proved ſucceſsful. The veſſels ſent on the diſcovery doubled the formidable Cape Non, which had terminated the progreſs of former navigators, and proceeded one hundred and ſixty miles beyond it, to Cape Bojador. As its rocky cliffs, which ſtretched a conſiderable way into the Atlantic, appeared more dreadful than the promontory they had paſſed, the Portugueſe commander was afraid to attempt to ſail round it, but returned to Liſbon, more ſatisfied with having advanced ſo far, than aſhamed of not having gone farther.

Though this voyage was in itſelf inconſiderable, yet it encreaſed the paſſion for diſcovery, which began to ſhew itſelf in Portugal. The fortunate iſſue of the king's expedition againſt the Moors of Barbary, added ſtrength to that ſpirit in the nation, and puſhed it on to new undertakings. In order to render theſe ſucceſſful, it was neceſſary, that they ſhould be conducted

conducted by a perſon, who poſſeſſed abilities capable of diſcerning what was attainable, who enjoyed leiſure to form a regular ſyſtem for proſecuting diſcovery, and who was animated with ardour, that would perſevere in ſpite of obſtacles and repulſes. Happily for Portugal, ſhe found all theſe qualities in Henry duke of Viſeo, the fourth ſon of king John. That prince, in his early youth, having accompanied his father in his expedition to Barbary, diſtinguiſhed himſelf by many deeds of valour. To the martial ſpirit, which was the characteriſtic of every man of noble birth at that period, he added all the accompliſhments of a more enlightened and poliſhed age. He cultivated the arts and ſciences, which were then little known, and deſpiſed by perſons of his exalted ſituation. He was particularly fond of the ſtudy of geography, and he early acquired ſuch a knowledge of the habitable globe, as diſcovered the great probability of finding new and opulent countries, by ſailing along the coaſt of Africa.

The commencement of every new undertaking is uſually attended with trifling ſucceſs. In the year 1418, he fitted out a ſingle ſhip, and gave the command of it to two gentlemen of his houſehold, who offered themſelves as volunteers to conduct the enterpriſe. He inſtructed them to

double Cape Bojador, and thence to ſteer towards the ſouth. They held their courſe along the ſhore, the mode of navigation which ſtill prevailed, when a ſudden ſquall of wind aroſe, which drove them out to ſea, and, when they expected every moment to periſh, it blew them on an unknown iſland, which, from their happy eſcape, they named Porto Santo. They inſtantly returned to Portugal with the news of their diſcovery, and were received by Henry with the applauſe and honour due to fortunate adventurers.

The next year Henry ſent out three ſhips under the ſame commanders, in order to make a ſettlement in Porto Santo. From this iſland they obſerved towards the ſouth a fixed ſpot in the horizon, like a ſmall black cloud. They were, by degrees, led to conjecture it might be land, and ſteering towards it, they arrived at a conſiderable iſland, uninhabited and covered with wood, which on that account they called Madeira. As it was Henry's principal object to render his diſcoveries uſeful to his country, he immediately equipped a fleet to carry a colony of Portugueſe to theſe iſlands. He took care that they ſhould be furniſhed not only with the ſeeds, plants, and domeſtic animals, common in Europe; but, as he foreſaw that the warmth of the climate, and fertility of the ſoil,

would prove favourable to the rearing of other productions, he procured slips of the vine from the island of Cyprus, the rich wines of which were then in great request, and plants of the sugar cane from Sicily, into which it had been lately introduced. These throve so prosperously in this new country, that the advantage of their culture was immediately perceived, and the sugar and wine of Madeira soon became considerable articles of commerce, from which the Portuguese derived great advantage.

These important successes gave a spur to the spirit of discovery, and induced the Portuguese, instead of servilely creeping along the coast, to venture into the open sea. They doubled Cape Bojador, in 1433, and advanced within the tropics. In the course of a few years, they discovered the river Senegal, and all the coast extending from Cape Blanco to Cape de Verde.

The Portuguese had hitherto been guided in their discoveries, or encouraged to attempt them, by the light and information they received from the works of the ancient mathematicians and geographers; but, when they began to enter the torid zone, the notions which prevailed among the ancients, that the heat was there so intense as to render it insupportable, deterred them, for some time, from proceeding. However,

ever, notwithſtanding theſe unfavourable appearances, in 1449 the Portugueſe diſcovered the Cape de Verde iſlands, which lie off the promontory of that name, and ſoon after the iſles called Azores. As the former of theſe are above three hundred miles from the African coaſt, and the latter nine hundred miles from any continent, it is evident, that the Portugueſe had made great advances in the art of navigation.

The paſſion for diſcoveries received an unfortunate check by the death of prince Henry, whoſe ſuperior knowledge had hitherto directed all the operations of the diſcoverers, and whoſe patronage had encouraged and protected them. However, notwithſtanding all the advantages they derived from hence, the Portugueſe, during his life, did not advance, in their utmoſt progreſs towards the ſouth, within five degrees of the equinoctial line; and, after their continued exertions for half a century, hardly fifteen hundred miles of the coaſt of Africa were diſcovered.

The Portugueſe, in 1471, ventured to croſs the line, and, to their aſtoniſhment, found that region of the torid zone, which was ſuppoſed to be ſcorched with intolerable heat, to be habitable, populous, and fertile.

Under the direction of John II. in 1484, a powerful fleet was fitted out, which advanced above fifteen hundred miles beyond the line, and the Portuguese, for the first time, beheld a new heaven, and observed the stars of another hemisphere.

By their constant intercourse with the people of Africa, they gradually acquired some knowledge of those parts of that country, which they had not visited. The information they received from the natives, added to what they had observed in their own voyages, began to open prospects of a more extensive nature. They found, as they proceeded southward, that the continent of Africa, instead of extending in breadth, according to the doctrine of Ptolemy, appeared sensibly to contract itself, and to bend towards the East. This induced them to give credit to the accounts of the ancient Phenician voyages round Africa, which had long been considered as fabulous, and gave them reason to hope, that by following the same route, they might arrive at the East Indies, and engross that commerce, which had so long contributed to enrich other powers.

In 1486, the conduct of a voyage for this purpose, the most dangerous and difficult the Portuguese had ever embarked in, was entrusted to Bartholomew Diaz, who

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ſtretched boldly towards the South, and proceeding beyond the utmoſt limits to which his countrymen had hitherto advanced, diſcovered near a thouſand miles of a new country. Neither the combined powers of violent tempeſts, and the frequent mutinies of his crew, nor even the calamities of famine, which he ſuffered from looſing his ſtore-ſhip, could deter him from the purſuit of his grand object. In ſpite of all, he at laſt diſcovered that lofty promontory, which bounds Africa to the South; but he did nothing more than diſcover it. The violence of the winds, the ſhattered condition of his ſhips, and the turbulent ſpirit of his ſailors, compelled him to return after a voyage of ſixteen months. The King of Portugal, as he now entertained no doubt of having found the long deſired route to India, gave this promontory the name of The Cape of Good Hope.

Theſe ſanguine ideas of ſucceſs were ſtrengthened by the intelligence the King received over land, in conſequence of his embaſſy to Abyſſinia. Covillam and Payva, by the King's inſtructions, had repaired to Grand Cairo. From this city, they travelled in company with a caravan of Egyptian merchants, and embarking on the Red Sea, arrived at Arden in Arabia. There they ſeparated: Payva ſailed di-

rectly towards Abyssinia; Covillam embarked for the East Indeis, and having visited Calecut, Goa, and other cities of the Malabar coast, returned to Sofala, on the east side of Africa, and thence to Grand Cairo, which Payva and he had fixed upon as their place of meeting. The former, however, was unfortunately and cruelly murdered in Abyssinia; but Covillam found at Cairo two Portugese Jews, whom the King of Portugal had dispatched after them, in order to receive an account of their proceedings, and to communicate to them new instructions. By one of these Jews, Covillam transmitted to Portugal a journal of his proceedings by sea and land, his remarks upon the trade of India, together with exact maps of the coasts on which he had touched; and from what he himself had observed, as well as from the information of skilful seamen in different countries, he concluded, that by sailing round Africa, a passage might be found to the East Indies. The happy coincidence of Covillam's report and opinion with the discoveries lately made by Diaz, left hardly any shadow of doubt with respect to the possibility of sailing from Europe to India. However, the vast length of the voyage, and the furious storms, which Diaz had encountered near the Cape of Good Hope, alarmed and intimidated

timidated the Portugueſe to ſuch a degree, although they were become adventurous and ſkilful mariners, that ſome time was requiſite to prepare their minds for this dangerous and extraordinary voyage.

Memorable Events recorded in this Chapter.

Introduction of commercial purſuits.

Imperfections of navigation among the ancients.

Navigation and commerce of the Egyptians, Phenicians, Jews, Carthaginians, Greeks, and Romans.

The firſt regular plan of diſcovery formed by the Portugueſe.

The uſe of the mariners compaſs diſcovered about 1322.

The Portugueſe double Cape Bojador about the year 1412.

Attempts to diſcover a new route to the Eaſt Indies.

Voyage of Bartholomew Diaz, in 1486, who penetrated as far as the Cape of Good Hope.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, a subject of the republic of Genoa, was among the foremost of those foreigners, whom the fame of the discoveries made by the Portuguese had allured into their service. Though neither the time nor place of his birth are certainly known, yet it is on all hands agreed, that he was descended from an honourable family reduced to indigence by misfortunes. As his ancestors were accustomed to a seafaring life, Columbus became naturally fond of it himself, and very early discovered those talents for that profession, which plainly indicated the great man he was one day to be. He applied with uncommon ardour to the study of the Latin tongue, geography, astronomy, and the art of drawing. Thus qualified, in 1461, at the age of fourteen, he went to sea, and began his career on that element, which conducted him to so much glory.

In 1467, he repaired to Lisbon, where many of his countrymen were settled. They soon conceived such a favourable opinion of his merit and talents, that they warmly solicited him to remain in their kingdom, where his naval skill and ex-

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perience could not fail of rendering him conſpicuous.

To find out a paſſage by ſea to the Eaſt Indies, was the great object in view at that period. From the time that the Portugueſe doubled Cape de Verde, this was the point at whieh they aimed in all their navigations. The tedioufneſs of the courſe, which the Portugueſe were purſuing, naturally led Columbus to conſider, whether a ſhorter and more direct paſſage to the Eaſt Indies, than that projected by failing round the African continent, might not be found out. After revolving long and ſeriouſly every circumſtance ſuggeſted by his ſuperior knowledge in the theory, as well as practice of navigation, after comparing attentively the obſervations of modern pilots, with the hints and conjectures of ancient authors, he at laſt concluded, that by ſailing directly towards the Weſt, acroſs the Atlantic ocean, new countries, which probably formed a part of the vaſt continent of India, muſt infallibly be diſcovered.

Filled with theſe ideas, he laid his ſcheme before the ſenate of Genoa, and making his country the firſt tender of his ſervice, offered to ſail under the banners of the republic, in queſt of the new regions he expected to diſcover; but they inconſiderately rejected his propoſal, as the dream of

of a chimerical projector. He then submitted his plan to the Portuguese, who endeavoured to rob him of the honour, by sending another person privately to pursue the same track proposed by him; but the pilot, chosen to execute Columbus's plan, had neither the genius nor the fortitude of its author. Contrary winds arose, no sight of approaching land appeared, his courage failed, and he returned to Lisbon, execrating a plan, which he had not abilities to execute.

Columbus no sooner discovered this dishonorable treatment, than he instantly quitted Portugal in disgust, and repaired to Spain about the close of the year 1484. Here he resolved to propose it in person to Ferdinand and Isabella, who at that time governed the united kingdoms of Castile and Arragon. He also sent his brother to England, to propose his plan to Henry VIII.

After a long succession of mortifying circumstances and disappointments, Isabella was persuaded to send for Columbus to court. The cordial reception he there met with from the queen, together with the near prospect of setting out upon that voyage, which had so long been the object of his thoughts and wishes, soon effaced the remembrance of all that he had suffered in Spain, during eight tedious years of

 solicitation

ſolicitation and ſuſpence. The negociation now went forward rapidly, and a treaty with Columbus was ſigned on the 17th of April, 1492.

The chief articles of it were, 1. Ferdinand and Iſabella, as ſovereigns of the ocean, conſtituted Columbus their high admiral in all the ſeas, iſlands, and continents, which ſhould be diſcovered by his induſtry; and ſtipulated, that he and his heirs ſhould enjoy this office, with the ſame powers and prerogatives, which belonged to the high admiral of Caſtile, within the limits of his juriſdiction. 2. They appointed Columbus their viceroy in all the iſlands and continents which he ſhould diſcover; but if, for the better adminiſtration of affairs, it ſhould hereafter be neceſſary to eſtabliſh a ſeparate governor in any of thoſe countries, they authoriſed Columbus to name three perſons, of whom they would chooſe one for that office; and the dignity of viceroy, with all its immunities, was likewiſe to be hereditary in the family of Columbus. 3. They granted to Columbus and his heirs, for ever, the tenth of the free profits accruing from the productions and commerce of the countries which he ſhould diſcover. 4. They declared, that if any controverſy or law-ſuit ſhould ariſe with reſpect to any mercantile tranſaction in

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the countries which ſhould be diſcovered, it ſhould be determined by the ſole authority of Columbus, or of judges to be appointed by him. 5. They permitted Columbus to advance one eight part of what ſhould be expended in preparing for the expedition, and in carrying on commerce with the countries which he ſhould diſcover, and entitle him, in return, to an eighth part of the profit.

Ferdinand, though his name appears conjoined with that of Iſabella in this tranſaction, refuſed to take any part in it as King of Arragon, his diſtruſt of Columbus being very violent.

After all the efforts of Iſabella and Columbus, the armament was not ſuitable, either to the dignity of the power who equipped it, or to the importance of the ſervice to which it was deſtined. It conſiſted of three veſſels. The largeſt, a ſhip of no conſiderable burden, was commanded by Columbus, as admiral, who gave it the name of Santa Maria. Of the ſecond, called the Pinta, Martin Pinzon was captain, and his brother Francis pilot. The third, named the Nigna, was under the command of Vincent Yanez Pinzon. Theſe two were light veſſels, hardly ſuperior in burden or force to large boats. The ſum employed in the whole of this equipment did not exceed 4000 l.

On the 3d day of Auguſt, 1492, Columbus ſet ſail, a little before ſun-riſe, in preſence of a vaſt crowd of ſpectators, who ſent up their ſupplications to heaven for the proſperous iſſue of the voyage, which they wiſhed rather than expected. Columbus ſteered directly for the Canary Iſlands, from whence he departed on the 6th of September. In the ſhort run to the Canaries, the ſhips were found to be ſo crazy and ill appointed, as to be very improper for a navigation, which was expected to be both long and dangerous.

Columbus, on leaving the Canaries, held his courſe due weſt, left immediately the uſual track of navigation, and ſtretched into unfrequented and unknown ſeas. By the 14th of September, the fleet was about two hundred leagues to the Weſt of the Canary iſlands, at a greater diſtance from land than any Spaniard had been before that time. Columbus early diſcovered from the ſpirit of his followers, that he muſt prepare to ſtruggle, not only with the unavoidable difficulties, which might be expected from the nature of his undertaking, but with ſuch as were likely to ariſe from the ignorance and timidity of the people under his command. All the art and addreſs he was maſter of was hardly ſufficient to quell the mutinous diſpoſition of his ſailors, who grew the more tur-

bulent,

bulent, in proportion as their diſtance encreaſed from home.

On the 11th of October, Columbus was ſo confident of being near land, that he ordered the ſails to be furled, and the ſhips to lie by, keeping ſtrict watch, leſt they ſhould be driven on ſhore in the night. During this interval of ſuſpence and expectation, no man ſhut his eyes, all kept upon deck, gazing intently towards that quarter where they expected to diſcover the land, which had been ſo long the object of their wiſhes. A little after midnight, the joyful ſound of *land! land!* was heard from the Pinta, which kept always a-head of the other ſhips; but, having been ſo often deceived by fallacious appearances, every man was now become ſlow of belief, and waited, in all the anguiſh of uncertainty and impatience, for the return of day.

On the 12th of October, as ſoon as morning dawned, all doubts and fears were diſpelled. From every ſhip an iſland was ſeen about two leagues to the North, whoſe flat and verdant fields, well ſtored with wood, and watered with many rivulets, preſented the aſpect of a delightful country. The crew of the Pinta inſtantly began the *Te Deum*, as a hymn of thankſgiving to God, and were joined by thoſe of the other ſhips, with tears of joy

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and tranſports of congratulation. They then on their knees begged pardon of Columbus for the mutinous ſpirit they had ſhewn, acknowledged his ſuperior abilities, and promiſed implicit obedience to his will in future.

The boats being manned and armed as ſoon as the ſun aroſe, they rowed towards the iſland with their colours diſplayed, warlike muſic, and other martial pomp. As they approached the coaſt, they ſaw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the ſpectacle had drawn together, whoſe attitudes and geſtures expreſſed wonder and aſtoniſhment at the ſtrange objects before them. He landed in a rich dreſs, with a ſword in his hand. His men followed, and kneeling down, they all kiſſed the ground which they had ſo long deſired to ſee. They then took ſolemn poſſeſſion of the country for the crown of Caſtile and Leon.

The dreſs of the Spaniards, the whiteneſs of their ſkins, their beards, their arms, appeared ſtrange and ſurpriſing to the natives. The vaſt machines in which they had traverſed the ocean, that ſeemed to move upon the water with wings, and uttered a dreadful ſound reſembling thunder, accompanied with lightning and ſmoke, ſtruck them with ſuch teror, that they began to conſider them as children of

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the Sun, who had deſcended to viſit mortals here below.

The Spaniards were no leſs ſurpriſed at the novelty of their ſituation. Every herb, ſhrub, and tree, was different from thoſe which flouriſhed in Europe. The inhabitants appeared in the ſimple innocence of nature, entirely naked, Their black hair, long and uncurled, floated upon their ſhoulders, or was bound in treſſes round their heads. They had no beards, and every part of their bodies was perfectly ſmooth. Their complexion was of a duſky copper colour, their features ſingular, rather than diſagreeable, and their aſpect gentle and timid. They were ſhy at firſt through fear, but ſoon became familiar with the Spaniards, and with tranſports of joy received from them hawks-bells, glaſs beads, or other baubles, in return for which they gave ſuch proviſions as they had, and ſome cotton yarn, the only commodity of value that they could produce. Thus in the firſt interview between the inhabitants of the new and old worlds, every thing was conducted amicably, and to their mutual ſatisfaction.

Columbus now aſſumed the title and authority of admiral and viceroy, and called the iſland he had diſcovered San Salvador. It is one of that large cluſter of iſlands called the Lucaya or Bahama iſles. It is ſituated

ſituated above 3000 miles to the weſt of Gomera, from which the ſquadron took its departure, and only four degrees to the ſouth of it.

It ſoon appeared evident to Columbus that this was but a poor place, and conſequently not the object of his purſuit. But, conformably to his theory concerning the diſcovery of thoſe regions of Aſia, which ſtretched towards the eaſt, he concluded that San Salvador was one of the iſles, which geographers deſcribed as ſituated in the vaſt ocean adjacent to India; but he was herein miſtaken. Having obſerved, that moſt of the people whom he had ſeen wore ſmall plates of gold, by way of ornament, in their noſtrils, he eagerly enquired where they got that precious metal. They pointed towards the ſouth, and made him comprehend by ſigns, that gold abounded in countries ſituated in that quarter.

In conſequence of this intelligence, he ſailed to the ſouthward, and ſaw ſeveral Iſlands. He touched at thoſe of the largeſt, on which he beſtowed the names of St. Mary, Fernandina, and Iſabella; but, as all his enquiries were after gold, and none of them produced any, he made no ſtay in any of them. He afterwards diſcovered Cuba, and ſoon after fell in with Hiſpaniola.

Columbus, ſtill intent on diſcovering the mines which yielded gold, ſailed from hence on the 24th of December, 1492. The great variety of buſineſs in which he was engaged having prevented Columbus from taking any ſleep for two days, he retired at midnight, in order to take ſome repoſe, having committed the helm to the pilot, with ſtrict injunction not to quit it for a moment. The pilot, dreading no danger, careleſſly left the helm to an unexperienced cabin-boy, and the ſhip, carried away by a current, was daſhed againſt a rock. The violence of the ſhock awakened Columbus. He ran up to the deck, where all was confuſion and deſpair, he alone retaining preſence of mind. However, all his endeavours were in vain; the veſſel opened near the keel, and filled ſo faſt with water that its loſs was inevitable. The boats from the Nigna ſaved the crew, and the natives in their canoes did every thing in their power to ſerve them, by whoſe aſſiſtance they ſaved almoſt every thing that was valuable.

The diſtreſs of Columbus was at this time very great. The Pinta had ſailed away from him, and he ſuſpected was treacherouſly gone to Europe. There remained but one veſſel, and that the ſmalleſt and moſt crazy of the ſquadron, to traverſe ſuch a vaſt ocean, and carry ſo many men back to Europe. He reſolved therefore to leave

leave a part of his crew on the iſland, that, by reſiding there, they might learn the language of the natives, ſtudy their diſpoſitions, ſearch for mines, and prepare for the commodious ſettlement of the colony, with which he propoſed to return. Having ſettled this buſineſs with his men and the natives, he built a fort, and placed in it the guns ſaved out of his own ſhip. He appointed thirty-eight of his people to remain on the iſland, under the command Diego de Arada, and furniſhed them with every thing requiſite for the ſubſiſtance or defence of the infant colony.

Having thus ſettled matters, he left Navidad on the 4th of January, 1493, and ſtretching towards the eaſt, diſcovered and gave names to moſt of the harbours on the northern coaſt of the iſland. On the 6th he decried the Pinta, and ſoon came up with her, after an abſence of ſix weeks. Pinzon endeavoured to juſtify his conduct, and though Columbus was by no means ſatisfied in his own mind, yet he thought it prudent to diſſemble at preſent, and accordingly received him again into favour. Pinzon, during his abſcence from the admiral, had viſited ſeveral harbours in the iſland, had acquired ſome gold by traffic with the natives, but had made no diſcovery of any importance.

Columbus,

Columbus now found it neceſſary, from the condition of his ſhips, and the temper of his men, to return to Europe. Accordingly, on the 16th of January, he directed his courſe towards the north-eaſt, and ſoon loſt ſight of land. The voyage was proſperous to the 14th of February, when he was ovetaken by ſo violent a ſtorm, that all hopes of ſurviving it were given up. At length Providence interpoſed to ſave a life reſerved for other purpoſes; and, after experiencing a ſecond ſtorm almoſt as dreadful as the firſt, he arrived at the Azores, then Liſbon, and reached Spain on the 15th of March, in the port of Palos, ſeven months and eleven days from the time when he ſet out from thence upon his voyage.

Columbus was received, on his landing, with all the honours due to his great abilities; and Ferdmand and Iſabella were no leſs aſtoniſhed than delighted with this unexpected event. Every mark of honour, that gratitude or admiration could ſuggeſt, was conferred upon Columbus. Letters patent were iſſued, confirming to him and his heirs all the previleges contained in the capitulation concluded at Santa Fé; his family was enobled, and the king, queen, and courtiers, treated him as a perſon of the higheſt rank. But what pleaſed him moſt was an order to equip, without delay, an armament of ſuch force, as might enable

him not only to take poffeffion of the countries he had already difcovered, but to go in fearch of thofe more opulent regions, which he ftill confidently expected to find.

Cautious as Ferdinand was, and averfe to every thing new and adventurous, preparations for a fecond expedition were carried on with a rapidity unufual in Spain, and to an extent that would be deemed not inconfiderable in the prefent age. The fleet confifted of feventeen fhips, fome of which were of good burthen. It had on board 1500 perfons, among whom were many of noble families, who had ferved in honourable ftations.

Every thing being ready, Columbus fet fail from the bay of Cadiz on the 25th of September, 1493, and arrived at Hifpaniola on the 22d of November. When he appeared off Navidad, from the ftation in which he had left the thirty-eight men under the command of Arada, he was aftonifhed that none of them appeared, and expected every moment to fee them running with tranfports of joy to welcome their countrymen. But he foon found, that the imprudent and licentious behaviour of his men had roufed the refentment of the natives, who at laft deftroyed them all and burned their fort.

He then traced out the plan of a town in a large plain, near a fpacious bay, and obliged every perfon to put his hand to a

work,

work, on which their common ſafety depended. This riſing city, the firſt that the Europeans founded in the New World, he named Iſabella, in honour of his patroneſs the queen of Caſtile.

His followers loudly complained of being obliged to turn builders, where they expected to meet with riches and luxuries. He therefore found it neceſſary to proceed in queſt of thoſe golden ſhadows. Having ſettled every thing reſpecting the government of the new colony in his abſence, he weighed anchor on the 24th of April, 1494, with one ſhip and two ſmall barks under his command. During a tedious voyage of full five months, he had a trial of almoſt all the numerous hardſhips, to which perſons of his profeſſion are expoſed, without making any diſcovery of importance, except the iſland of Jamaica.

On his return to Hiſpaniola, he met with his brother Batholomew at Iſabella, after an abſence of near thirteen years, which gave him inexpreſſible joy. He could not have arrived more ſeaſonably, as the Spaniards were not only threatened with famine, but even with an inſurrection of the natives, owing to the ſhameful liberties the new ſettlers took with the women and property of the Indians, who united their forces to drive theſe formidable invaders from the ſettlements, of which they had violently taken poſſeſſion.

On the 24th of March, Columbus took the field with his little army, which consisted only of 200 foot, twenty horse, and twenty large dogs; and how strange soever it may seem, to mention the last as composing part of a military force, they were not perhaps the least formidable and destructive of the whole, when employed against naked and timid Indians. If we may believe the Spanish historians, the Indian army amounted to 100,000 men; but they were ignorant of the arts of war, and had nothing but clubs and arrows for their defence. Columbus attacked them during the night, and obtained an easy and bloody victory. Many were killed, more taken prisoners, and reduced to servitude; and so thoroughly were the rest intimidated, that they abandoned themselves to despair, considering their enemies as invincible.

Columbus employed several months in marching through the island, and in subjecting it to the Spanish government, without meeting with any opposition. He imposed a tribute upon all the inhabitants above fourteen years of age. Each person who lived in those districts where gold was found, was obliged to pay quarterly as much gold-dust as filled a hawk's bell; from those in other parts of the country, twenty pounds of cotton were demanded.

This

This was the firſt regular taxation of the Indians, and ſerved as a precedent for exactions, ſtill more exorbitant. Such an impoſition was extremely contrary to thoſe maxims which Columbus had hitherto inculcated, with reſpect to the mode of treating them.

The condition of the Indians became inſupportable, and they endeavoured to ſtarve the Spaniards, by deſtroying all the produce of the earth, and then retired to the mountains. This reduced the Spaniards to extreme want; but they received ſuch ſeaſonable ſupplies of proviſions from Europe, and found ſo many reſources in their ingenuity and induſtry, that they ſuffered no great loſs of men.

Columbus finding he had many enemies in the court of Spain, reſolved to return home in order to juſtify himſelf, leaving his brother Bartholomew as lieutenant-governor, and Francis Roldon chief juſtice. He was received at court, on his arrival, with ſo many marks of approbation, after having perfectly cleared up his conduct, as made his enemies aſhamed of themſelves, and it was reſolved to ſend h m on diſcoveries a third time.

After innumerable diſappointments and delays, he failed on his third voyage, on the 30th of May, 1498. His ſquadron conſiſted of ſix ſhips only, of no great

burden, and but indifferently provided for ſo long and dangerous a navigation.

He ſailed in a different direction to what he had hitherto done, in order to fall in with the coaſt of India. On the firſt of Auguſt, the man ſtationed in the round top ſurpriſed them with the joyful cry of *land*. They ſtood towards it, and diſcovered a conſiderable iſland, which the admiral called Trinidad, a name it ſtill retains. He did not arrive at Hiſpaniola till the 30th of Auguſt, when he found the affairs of the colony in ſuch a ſituation, as afforded him no proſpect of enjoying that repoſe, of which he ſtood ſo much in need.

Many revolutions had happened in that country during his abſence. His brother, the deputy-governor, in conſequence of the advice the admiral gave him before his departure, had removed the colony from Iſabella to a more commodious ſtation, on the oppoſite ſide of the iſland, and laid the foundation of St. Domingo. The natives were ſoon after reduced to the Spaniſh yoke, which appeared ſo oppreſſive to them, that they roſe in their own defence, but were eaſily conquered. At the ſame time, Roldon, whom Columbus had placed in a ſtation, which required him to be the gardian of order and tranquillity, perſuaded the colony to riſe in arms.

Such

Such was the diſtracted ſtate of the colony when Columbus arrived at St. Domingo; but his wiſdom and moderation ſoon brought every thing to order.

While Columbus was thus engaged in the Weſt, the ſpirit of diſcovery did not languiſh in Portugal. Emmanuel, who inherited the enterpriſing genius of his predeceſſors, perſiſted in their grand ſcheme of opening a paſſage to the Eaſt Indies by the Cape of Good Hope; and ſoon after his acceſſion to the throne, he equipped a ſquadron for that important voyage. He gave the command of it to Vaſco de Gama, a man of noble birth, poſſeſſed of virtue, prudence, and courage, equal to the ſtation. The ſquadron, like all thoſe fitted out for diſcovery in the infancy of navigation, was extremely feeble, conſiſting only of three veſſels, of neither burthen nor force adequate to the ſervice.

He ſet ſail from Liſbon on the 9th of July, 1497, and ſtanding towards the South, had to ſtruggle for four months with contrary winds, before he could reach the Cape of Good Hope: Here their violence began to abate, and during an interval of calm weather, in the latter end of November, Gama doubled that formidable promontory, which had ſo long been the boundary of navigation, and directed his courſe towards the north-eaſt,

along

along the African coaſt. He touched at ſeveral ports, and after various adventures, he came to an anchor before the city of Meleida. Gama now purſued his voyage with almoſt abſolute certainty of ſucceſs, and, under the conduct of a Mahometan pilot, he arrived at Calecut, upon the coaſt of Malabar, on the 22d of May, 1498.

What he beheld of the wealth, the populouſneſs, the cultivation, the induſtry, and arts of this highly civilized country, far exceeded any idea that he had formed, from the imperfect accounts, which the Europeans had hitherto received of it. But as he poſſeſſed neither ſufficient force to attempt a ſettlement, nor proper commodities, with which he could carry on commerce of any conſequence, he haſtened back to Portugal, with an account of his ſucceſs in performing a voyage the longeſt, as well as moſt difficult, that had ever been made ſince the firſt invention of navigation. He landed at Liſbon, on the 14th of September, 1499, two years, two months, and five days from the time he left that port.

Amerigo Veſpucci, a Florentine gentleman, having accompanied Ojeda in a voyage to the new world, on his return tranſmitted an account of his adventures and diſcoveries to one of his countrymen;

and

and labouring with the vanity of a traveller to magnify his own exploits, he had the addreſs and confidence to frame his narrative, ſo as to make it appear, that he had the glory of having firſt diſcovered the continent in the new world. The country, of which Amerigo was ſuppoſed to be the diſcoverer, came gradually to be called by his name. By the univerſal conſent of nations, AMERICA is the name beſtowed on this new quarter of the globe. The bold pretenſions of a fortunate impoſtor have robbed the diſcoverer of the new world of a diſtinction which belonged to him. The name of Amerigo has ſupplanted that of Columbus, and it is now too late to redreſs the injury.

During the laſt year of the fourteenth century, Pedro Alvarez Cabral was fitted out by the king of Portugal, in order to carry on trade, or attempt conqueſts, in India, to which place Gama had juſt ſhewn them the way. In order to avoid the coaſt of Africa, where he was certain of meeting with variable breezes, or frequent calms, which might retard his voyage, Cabral ſtood out to ſea, and kept ſo far to the Weſt, that, to his ſurpriſe, he found himſelf upon the ſhore of an unknown country, in the tenth degree beyond the line. The country with which he fell in belongs to that province in South America,

America, now known by the name of Brafil. He landed, and having formed a very high idea of the fertility of the foil, and agreeablenefs of the climate, he took poffeffion of it for the crown of Portugal, and difpatched a fhip to Lifbon with an account of this event, which appeared to be no lefs important than it was unexpected.

While the Spaniards and Portuguefe were daily acquiring more enlarged ideas of the extent and opulence of that quarter of the globe which Columbus had made known to them, he himfelf, far from enjoying the tranquillity and honours, with which his fervices fhould have been recompenfed, was ftruggling with every diftrefs, in which the envy and malevolence of the people under his command, or the ingratitude of the court which he ferved, could involve him. As foon as the court of Spain began to be prejudiced againft Columbus, a fatal refolution was taken. Francis de Bovadilla, a knight of Calatrava, was appointed to repair to Hifpaniola, with full powers to enquire into the conduct of Columbus; and, if he fhould find the charge of maladminiftration proved, to fupercede him, and affume the government of the ifland. It was impoffible to efcape, when this prepofterous commiffion made it the intereft of the judge to pronounce the perfon, whom he was fent to try, guilty

of

of every charge. What followed cannot at all appear ſurpriſing: Columbus was ſent to Spain loaded with chains.

Fortunately, his voyage to Spain was extremely ſhort, where he arrived on the 23d of November, 1500. As ſoon as Ferdinand and Iſabella were informed that Columbus was brought home a priſoner, and in chains, they were aſhamed of their conduct, and dreaded the cenſure of all Europe. They inſtantly iſſued orders to ſet Columbus at liberty, invited him to court, and remitted him money to enable him to appear there in a manner ſuitable to his rank. On his appearance at court, the modeſt manner in which he told his tale, and related his grievances, were felt by every one, the new governor of Hiſpaniola was recalled, and Ovando was ſent in his room.

While the neceſſary ſteps were taking for ſecuring the proſperity and welfare of the colony which Columbus had planted, he himſelf was engaged in the unpleaſant employment of ſoliciting the favour of an ungrateful court, and, notwithſtanding all his merit and ſervices, he ſolicited in vain. After attending the court of Spain for near two years, as an humble ſuitor, he found it impoſſible to remove Ferdinand's prejudices and apprehenſions, and perceived at length, that he laboured in vain, when he

he urged a claim of juſtice or merit with an intereſted, ungenerous, and unfeeling prince.

However, Columbus, at laſt, prevailed on the court of Spain to fit him out on his fourth expedition, which they were perſuaded to embark in, on the promiſed hope of his finding out a ſhorter and ſafer route to the Eaſt Indies. He accordingly ſailed from Cadiz on the 9th of May, 1502, with only four ſmall barks, the largeſt of which did not exceed ſeventy tons in burden. On his arrival at Hiſpaniola, he met with the moſt ungenerous treatment from the new governor Ovando, who would not ſuffer him to enter their harbours.

After various and fruitleſs attempts to diſcover a paſſage to the Indian ocean, Columbus met with all the diſaſters to which navigation is expoſed. Furious hurricanes, with violent ſtorms of thunder and lightning, threatened his deſtruction, and at laſt drove him on the coaſt of Jamica, where his little crazy fleet was wrecked, on the 24th of June, 1503.

The diſtreſs of Columbus in this ſituation was truly lamentable; but his genius roſe above every thing. He ſupported the inſolence and cruelty of the inhabitants, the ſtill more alarming mutiny of his

Columbus's Ship splitting on a Rock.

his men, and the infamous conduct of the governor of Hiſpaniola, till ſome ſhips appeared, when the Spaniards quitted an iſland in which the unfeeling jealouſy of Ovando had ſuffered them to languiſh above a year.

On the 12th of September, 1504, he ſet ſail for Spain with two ſhips, and his ill fortune purſued him even in his paſſage home, being overtaken by a ſtorm, and with the greateſt difficulty got back to Spain. On his arrival, he received the fatal news of the death of his patroneſs Queen Iſabella.

Columbus, diſguſted with the ingratitude of a monarch, whom he had ſerved with ſuch fidelity and ſucceſs, exhauſted with the fatigues and hardſhips he had endured, and broken with the infirmities theſe brought upon him, he ended his life at Valadolid, on the 20th of May, 1506, in the 59th year of his age.

Memorable Events recorded in this Chapter.

1492 Columbus ſets out on his firſt voyage.

Diſcovers the iſlands of Cuba and Hiſpaniola.

1493 Columbus ſets out on his ſecond voyage.

 1494

1494 Discovers the island of Jamaica.
1498 Third voyage of Columbus.
He discovers the continent of America.
1499 The Portuguese sail to the East Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope.
On what account the name of AMERICA was given to the New World.
1500 Columbus sent in chains to Spain.
1502 He sets out on his fourth voyage.
Searches in vain for a passage to the East Indies.
1503 Shipwrecked on the island of Jamaica.
1506 Death of Columbus.

CHAP. III.

CHAP. III.

THE colony of Hiſpaniola, before the death of Columbus, had gradually acquired the form of a regular and proſperous ſtate. The humane ſolicitude of Iſabella to protect the Indians from oppreſſion, and particularly the proclamation, by which the Spaniards were prohibited to compel them to work, for ſome time, it is true, retarded the progreſs of improvement. The natives, conſidering every exemption from toil as a ſupreme felicity, deſpiſed every allurement and reward by which they were invited to labour. The Spaniards were not numerous enough, either to work the mines, or cultivate the ſoil, the diſtempers peculiar to the climate having carried off great numbers.

In order to ſave the colony from ruin, Ovando ventured to relax the rigour of ſome royal edicts that had been ſent to him. He made a new diſtribution of the Indians among the Spaniards, and compelled them to labour for a ſtated time, in digging the mines, or in cultivating the grounds; but, in order to ſcreen himſelf from the imputation of having ſubjected them again to ſervitude, he enjoined their maſters to pay them a

 certain

certain ſum, as the price of their work. But the Indians, after enjoying reſpite from oppreſſion, though during a ſhort interval, now felt the yoke of bondage to be ſo galling, that they made ſeveral attempts to vindicate their own liberty. However, they were ſubdued as often as they roſe, and the treatment they received from Ovando was both cruel and treacherous.

The attention of the Spaniards was ſo much engroſſed by their operations in the mines of Hiſpaniola, that the ſpirit of diſcovery languiſhed for ſome time. In 1508, Juan Ponce de Leon, who commanded under Ovando in the eaſtern diſtrict of Hiſpaniola, paſſed over to the iſland of St. Juan de Puerto Rico, which Columbus had diſcovered in his ſecond voyage, and penetrated into the interior parts of the country. As he found the ſoil to be fertile, and expected, from ſome ſymptons, as well as from the information of the inhabitants, to diſcover mines of gold in the mountains, Ovando permitted him to attempt making a ſettlement in the iſland. In a few years, Puerto Rico was ſubjected to the Spaniſh government, the natives were reduced to ſervitude, and being treated with the ſame inconſiderate rigour as their neighbours in Hiſpaniola, the race of original inhabitants, worn

out

worn out with fatigue and ſufferings, was ſoon exterminated.

Sebaſtian de Ocampo, by the command of Ovando, failed round Cuba, and firſt diſcovered, with certainty, that this country, which Columbus once ſuppoſed to be a part of the continent, was only a large iſland.

This voyage round Cuba was one of the laſt occurrences under the adminiſtration of Ovando. Ever ſince the death of Columbus, his ſon Don Diego had been employed in ſoliciting Ferdinand to grant him the offices of Vice-roy and Admiral in the New World, together with all the other immunities and profits which deſcended to him by inheritance, in conſequence of the original capitulation with his father. But if theſe dignities and revenues appeared ſo conſiderable to Ferdinand, that, at the expence of being deemed unjuſt, as well as ungrateful, he had wreſted them from Columbus, it is not ſurprizing that he ſhould be unwilling to confer them on his ſon. Accordingly Don Diego waſted two years in inceſſant but fruitleſs importunity. Weary of this, he endeavoured at length to obtain, by a legal ſentence, what he could not procure from the favour of an intereſted monarch. He commenced a ſuit againſt Ferdinand before the council

which managed Indian affairs, and that court, with an integrity which reflects honour upon its proceedings, decided against the king, and confirmed all the privileges stipulated in the capitulation. Ferdinand still shewed his repugnance to do Diego justice, nor would he at last have done any thing, had he not been in a manner forced to it by a powerful party, raised in consequence of the marriage of Don Diego with Donna Maria, daughter of Don Ferdinand, great commendator of Leon, and brother of the duke of Alva, a nobleman of the first rank, and nearly related to the king. The duke and his family espoused so warmly the cause of their new ally, that Ferdinand could not resist their solicitations.

In 1509, he recalled Ovando, and appointed Don Diego his successor, though even in conferring this favour, he could not conceal his jealousy; for he allowed him to assume only the title of governor, and not that of vice-roy.

Don Diego immediately set off for Hispaniola, attended by his brother, his uncle, his wife, whom the courtesy of the Spaniards honoured with the title of vice-queen, and a numerous retinue of both sexes, born of good families. He lived with a splendour and magnificence hitherto unknown in the New World, and the

the family of Columbus ſeemed now to enjoy the honours and rewards due to his inventive genius, of which he himſelf had been cruelly defrauded. The colony itſelf acquired new luſtre by the acceſſion of ſo many inhabitants, of a different rank and character from moſt of thoſe, who had hitherto emigrated to America, and many of the moſt illuſtrious families in the Spaniſh ſettlements are deſcended from the perſons, who at that time accompanied Don Diego Columbus.

Juan Diaz de Solis, about this time, ſet out, in conjunction with Pinzon, upon new diſcoveries. They ſailed due South, towards the equinoctial line, which Pinzon had formerly croſſed, and advanced as far as the fortieth degree of ſouthern latitude. They were aſtoniſhed to find, that the continent of America ſtretched, on the right hand, through all this vaſt extent of ocean. They landed in different places, to take poſſeſſion in the name of their ſovereign; but though the country appeared to be extremely fertile and inviting, their force was ſo ſmall, having been fitted out rather for diſcovery than making ſettlements, that they left no colony behind them. Their voyage, however, ſerved to give the Spaniards more exalted and adequate ideas, with reſpect to the dimenſions of the New World.

Private

Private adventurers attempted to make ſettlements on the new continent; but the loſs of their ſhips by various accidents upon unknown coaſts, the diſeaſes peculiar to a climate the moſt noxious in all America, the want of proviſions, unavoidable in a country imperfectly cultivated, diſſentions among themſelves, and the inceſſant hoſtilities of the natives, involved them in a ſucceſſion of calamities, the bare recital of which would ſtrike my readers with horror.

Notwithſtanding the unfortunate iſſue of this expedition, the Spaniards were not deterred from engaging in new ſchemes of a ſimilar nature. Juan Ponce de Leon, in 1512. fitted out three ſhips at his own expence, for a voyage of diſcovery, and his reputation ſoon drew together a reſpectable body of followers. He directed his courſe towards the Lucayo iſlands; and, after touching at ſeveral of them, as well as of the Bahama iſles, he ſtood to the Southweſt, and diſcovered a country hitherto unknown to the Spaniards, which he called Florida, either becauſe he fell in with it on Palm Sunday, or on account of its gay and beautiful appearance. He attempted to land in different places, but met with ſuch vigorous oppoſition from the natives, who were fierce and warlike, as convinced him, that an en-

crease of force was requisite to effect a settlement. Satisfied with having opened a communication with a new country, of whose value and importance he conceived very sanguine hopes, he returned to Puerto Rico, through the channel now known by the name of the Gulf of Florida.

Soon after the expedition to Florida, a discovery of much greater importance was made in another part of America, Balboa, having been raised to the government of the small colony at Santa Maria in Darien, made frequent inroads into the adjacent country, and collected a considerable quantity of gold, which abounded more in that part of the continent than in the islands. In one of these excursions, the Spaniards contended with such eagerness about the division of some gold, that they were at the point of proceeding to acts of violence against one another. A young Indian prince, who was present, astonished at the high value they set upon a thing, of which he did not discern the use, tumbled the gold out of the balance with indignation, and, turning to the Spaniards, "Why do you quarrel," (said he) "about such a trifle? If you are so passionately fond of gold, as to abandon your own country, and to disturb the tranquillity of distant nations for its sake, I will conduct you to a region, where this

this metal, which seems to be the chief object of your admiration and desire, is so common, that the meanest utensils are formed of it."

Balboa and his companions, transported with what they heard, eagerly enquired where this happy country lay, and how they might arrive at it. He informed them, at the distance of six suns, that is, of six days journey towards the South, they should discover another ocean, near to which this wealthy kingdom was situated; but, if they intended to attack that powerful state, they must assemble forces far superior in number and strength to what they were at present. This was the first information which the Spaniards received concerning the southern ocean, or the opulent and extensive country, known afterwards by the name of Peru.

Balboa, having mustered all the forces he could, which amounted only to 190 men, set out on this important expedition on the first of September, 1513, about the time that the periodical rains began to abate. Though their guides had represented the breath of the isthmus to be only a journey of six days, they had already spent twenty-five in forcing their way through the woods and mountains. Many of them were ready to sink under such uninterrupted fatigue in that sultry climate,

climate, feveral were feized with the difeafes peculiar to the country, and all became impatient to reach the period of their labours and fufferings. At length, the Indians affured them, that from the top of the next mountain they fhould difcover the ocean which was the object of their wifhes. When, with infinite toil, they had climbed up the greater part of that fteep afcent, Balboa commanded his men to halt, and advanced alone to the fummit, that he might be the firft who fhould enjoy fuch a fpectacle which he had fo long defired. As foon as he beheld the South Sea ftretching in endlefs profpect below him, he fell on his knees, and lifting up his hands to heaven, returned thanks to God, who had conducted him to a difcovery fo beneficial to his country, and fo honourable to himfelf. His followers, obferving his tranfports of joy, rufhed forward to join his wonder, exultation, and gratitude. They held on their courfe to the fhore, with great alacrity, when Balboa advancing up to the middle in the waves, with his buckler and fword, took poffeffion of that ocean in the name of the king his mafter, and vowed to defend it.

That part of the great Pacific or Southern ocean, which Balboa firft difcovered, ftill retains the name of the Gulf of St. Michael, which he gave to it, and is fituated

ated to the eaſt of Panama. From ſeveral of the petty princes, who governed in the diſtricts adjacent to that gulf, he extorted proviſions and gold by force of arms; others ſent them to him voluntarily. Together with the acquiſition of this wealth, which ſerved to ſoothe and encourage his followers, he received accounts which confirmed his ſanguine hopes of future and more extenſive benefits from this expedition. All the people on the coaſt of the South Sea concurred in informing him, that there was a mighty and opulent kingdom ſituated at a conſiderable diſtance towards the ſouth-eaſt, where gold was found in plenty.

Though the information Balboa received from the people, on the coaſt, as well as his own conjectures and hopes, made him extremely impatient to viſit this unknown country, his prudence reſtrained him from attempting to invade it with a handful of men, exhauſted by fatigue, and weakened by diſeaſes. He determined to lead back his followers to their ſettlement at Santa Maria in Darien, and to return next ſeaſon with a force more adequate to ſuch an arduous enterprize. He reached Santa Maria after an abſence of four months, with greater glory and more treaſure, than the Spaniards ever had acquired in any former expedition in the New World.

He took care to acquaint the court of Spain with the important diſcovery he had made, and demanded a reinforcement of a thouſand men, in order to attempt the conqueſt of that opulent country, concerning which he had received ſuch inviting intelligence.

The meanneſſes and jealouſies of Ferdinand, and the advice of men around him worſe than himſelf, induced him to ſupercede Balboa, the moſt proper man he could have employed, and to appoint Pedrarias Davila governor of Darien. He gave him the command of fourteen ſtout veſſels, and twelve hundred ſoldiers. Theſe were fitted out at the public expence, and granted with a liberality unuſual to Ferdinand.

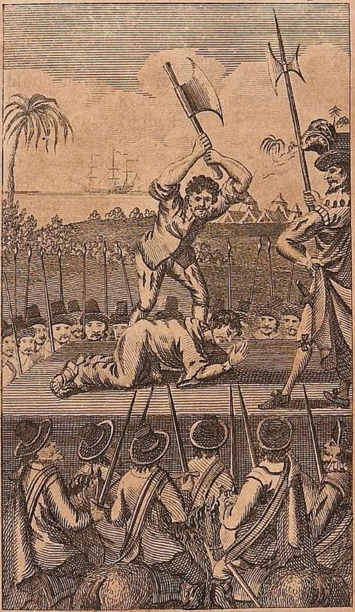
Perdrarias reached the gulf of Darien without any remarkable accident, in July, 1514; but his ill conduct, and baſe treatment of Balboa, ſtopped all operations, and nearly ruined this flouriſhing colony. Both parties ſent home complaints to Spain againſt each other.

At length, Ferdinand became ſenſible of his imprudence in ſuperceding the moſt active and experienced officer he had in the New World, and, by way of compenſation to Balboa, he appointed him lieutenant-governor of the countries upon the South Sea, with very extenſive privileges and

authority, at the ſame time ordering Pedrarias to ſupport him in all his operations, and to conſult him on every meaſure which he himſelf purſued. Surely nothing could be more ridiculous and abſurd in Ferdinand than this conduct! Padrarias now conceived the moſt implacable hatred to Balboa, and, though he afterwards ſeemed ſo far reconciled to him, as to give him his daughter in marriage, he ſoon found means falſely to accuſe him of high treaſon, had him tried, condemned, and publicly executed, in 1517. Pedrarias, notwithſtanding the violence and injuſtice of his proceedings, was not only ſcreened from puniſhment by the powerful patronage of the infamous biſhop of Burgos, an inveterate enemy to real merit, but continued in the government.

While matters were thus going forward in Darien, ſeveral importan tevents occurred with reſpect to the diſcovery, the conqueſt, and government of other provinces in the New World. Ferdinand was ſo intent upon opening a communication with the Molucca or Spice Iſlands by the weſt, that, in the year 1515, he fitted out two ſhips at his own expence, in order to attempt ſuch a voyage, and gave the command of them to Juan Diaz de Solis, who was deemed one of the moſt ſkilful navigators in Spain. He ſtood along the coaſt of South

p. 62.



The Beheading of Balboa.

South America, and on the firſt of January, 1516, he entered a river which he called Janeiro, where an extenſive commerce is now carried on. From thence he proceeded to a ſpacious bay, which he ſuppoſed to be the entrance into a ſtrait that communicated with the Indian ocean; but, upon advancing farther, he found it to be the mouth of Rio de Plata, one of the vaſt rivers, by which the ſouthern continent of America is watered. In endeavouring to make a deſcent in this country, De Solis and ſeveral of his crew were ſlain by the natives; who, in ſight of the ſhips, cut their bodies in pieces, roaſted and devoured them. Diſcouraged by the loſs of their commander, and terrified at this ſhocking ſpectacle, the ſurviving Spaniards ſet ſail for Europe, without aiming at any further diſcovery. Though this attempt proved abortive, it was not without benefit: it turned the attention of ingenious men to this courſe of navigation, and prepared the way for a more fortunate voyage.

While diſcoveries were thus going forward, Hiſpaniola continued as their principal colony, and the ſeat of government. Don Diego Columbus wanted neither inclination nor abilities to have rendered the members of this colony, who were moſt immediately under his direction, proſperous and happy; but he was circumſcribed

in all his operations by the fuſpicious policy of Ferdinand, who on every occaſion, and under the moſt frivolous pretexts, retrenched his privileges, and encouraged the treaſurer, the judges, and other ſubordinate officers, to counteract his meaſures, and to diſpute his authority. In ſhort, Ferdinand's conduct was ſo ungenerous, as obliged Don Diego to quit Hiſpaniola, and repair to Spain, in order to ſeek redreſs for his injuries.

On the death of Ferdinand, in 1517, Charles V. took poſſeſſion of the government. Diego Velaſquez, who conquered Cuba in the year 1511, ſtill retained the government of that iſland, as the deputy of Don Diego Columbus, though he ſeldom acknowledged his ſuperior, and aimed at rendering his own authority altogether independant. Under his prudent adminiſtration, Cuba became one of the moſt flouriſhing of the Spaniſh ſettlements. The fame of this drew many perſons from the other colonies, expecting there to find ſome permanent eſtabliſhment, or ſome employment for their activity. As Cuba lay to the weſt of all the iſlands poſſeſſed by the Spaniards, and as the ocean which ſtretches beyond it towards that quarter, had not hitherto been explored, theſe circumſtances naturally invited the inhabitants to attempt new diſcoveries.

An

An expedition for this purpose, in which activity and resolution might conduct to sudden wealth, was more suited to the genius of the age, than the patient industry requisite in clearing ground, and manufacturing sugar. Hence it happened, that several officers who had served under Pedrarias in Darien, entered into an association to undertake a voyage of discovery. They persuaded Francisco Hernandez Cordova, an opulent planter in Cuba, and a man of great courage, to join with them in the adventure, and chose him to be their commander. Velasquez not only approved of the design, but assisted in carrying it on.

Three smalls vessels were purchased, and furnished with every thing requisite either for traffic or war. An hundred and ten men embarked on board them, and sailed from St. Jago de Cuba on the 8th of February, 1517.

On the twenty-first day after their departure from St. Jago, they saw land, which proved to be Cape Catoche, the eastern point of that large peninsula projecting from the continent of America, which still retains its original name of Yucatan. As they approached the shore, five canoes came off full of people decently clad in cotton garments: an astonishing sight to the Spaniards, who had found

every other part of America poſſeſſed by native ſavages. Cordova endeavoured by ſmall preſents to gain the good-will of theſe people. They, though amazed at the ſtrange objects now preſented for the firſt time to their view, invited the Spaniards to viſit their habitations, with an appearance of cordiality. They landed accordingly, and as they advanced into the country, they obſerved with new wonder ſome large houſes built with ſtone; but they ſoon found, if the Yucatans had made progreſs in improvement beyond their countrymen, they were likewiſe more artful and warlike. Though the Indian chief received Cordova with many tokens of friendſhip, he had poſted a conſiderable body of his ſubjects in ambuſh behind a thicket, who, upon a ſignal given by him, ruſhed out and attacked the Spaniards with great boldneſs, and with ſome degree of martial order. At the firſt flight of their arrows, fifteen of the Spaniards were wounded; but the Indians were ſo terrified with the ſudden exploſion of the fire-arms, and ſo ſurpriſed at the execution done by them, by the croſs-bows, and by the other weapons of their new enemies, that they precipitately fled. Cordova immediately quitted a country where he had met with ſo unwelcome a reception, carrying

off two prifoners, with the ornaments of a fmall temple which he plundered in making his retreat to his fhip.

Cordova continued his courfe towards the weft without lofing fight of the coaft, and on the fixteenth day arrived at Campeachy. At this place the natives received them more kindly; but the Spaniards were much furprifed, that on all the extenfive coaft along which they had failed, they had not met with any river. Their water beginning to fail, they advanced in hopes of finding a fupply; and at length they difcovered the mouth of a river.

Cordova landed all his troops in order to protect the failors, whofe bufinefs it was to fill the cafks; but the natives rufhed down upon them with fuch fury, and in fuch numbers, that forty-feven of the Spaniards were killed upon the fpot, and one man only of the whole body efcaped unhurt. Their commander, though wounded in twelve different places, directed the retreat with prefence of mind equal to the courage with which he had led them on in the engagement, and with much difficulty they reached their fhips. Having met with this terrible repulfe, nothing remained but to haften back to Cuba with their fhattered forces. In their paffage thither, they fuffered the greateft diftrefs from the want of water,

that

that men wounded and ſickly, ſhut up in ſmall veſſels, and expoſed to the heat of the torrid zone, can be ſuppoſed to ſuffer. Some died on their paſſage, and Cordova their commander, ſoon after he landed at Cuba, paid the debt of nature.

Unfortunate as this expedition proved, it contributed rather to animate than damp a ſpirit of enterprize among the Spaniards. They had diſcovered an extenſive country, ſituated in the neighbourhood of Cuba, fertile in appearance, and poſſeſſed by a people far more refined than any they had hitherto met with in America. Velaſquez, through particular views of ambition and intereſt, not only encouraged their ardour, but at his own expence fitted out four ſhips for the voyage. Two hundred and forty volunteers, among whom were ſeveral perſons of rank and fortune, embarked in this enterpriſe. The command of it was given to Juan de Grijalva, a young man of known merit and courage, with inſtructions attentively to obſerve the nature of the countries which he ſhould diſcover; to barter for gold; and, if circumſtances were inviting, to ſettle a colony in ſome proper ſtation. He ſailed from St. Jago de Cuba, on the 8th. of April, 1518.

They held the ſame courſe as in the former voyage, and at laſt reached Potonchan,

tonchan, where the laſt adventurers had been ſo roughly handled. The deſire of avenging their countrymen who had been ſlain there, concurred with their ideas of good policy, in prompting them to land, that they might chaſtize the Indians with ſuch exemplary rigour, as would ſtrike terror into all the people around them; but, though they diſimbarked all their troops, and carried aſhore ſome field pieces, the Indians fought with ſuch courage, that the Spaniards with difficulty gained the victory; and were confirmed in their opinion, that the inhabitants of this country would prove more formidable enemies than any they had met with in other parts of America.

From Potonchan, they continued their voyage towards the weſt, keeping as near as poſſible to the ſhore, and caſting anchor every evening, from dread of the dangerous accidents to which they might be expoſed in an unknown ſea. During the day their eyes were turned continually towards land, with a mixture of ſurprize and wonder at the beauty of the country, as well as the novelty of the objects they beheld. Many villages were ſcattered along the coaſt, in which they could diſtinguiſh houſes of ſtone that appeared white and lofty at a diſtance. One of the ſoldiers happening to remark, that this country reſembled

refembled Spain in its appearance, Grijalva, with univerfal applaufe, called it New Spain, the name which ftill diftinguifhes this extenfive and opulent province of the Spanifh empire in America.

On the 9th of June, they landed in a river, which the natives called Tabafco, and the fame of their victory at Potonchan having reached this place, the chief not only received them amicably, but beftowed prefents upon them of fuch value, as confirmed the high ideas, which the Spaniards had formed with refpect to the wealth and fertility of the country. Thefe ideas were raifed ftill higher, by what occurred at the place where they next touched. This was confiderably to the weft of Tabafco, in the province fince known by the name of Guaxaca. There they were received with the refpect due to fuperior beings. The people perfumed them as they landed with gum copal, and prefented to them as offerings the choiceft delicacies of their country. They were extremely fond of trading with their new vifitants, and in fix days the Spaniards obtained ornaments of gold, of curious workmanfhip, to the value of fifteen thoufand pefos, in exchange for European toys of fmall price. The two prifoners, whom Cordova had brought from Yucatan, had hitherto ferved as interpreters; but as they were unacquainted with

with the language of this country, the Spaniards learned from the natives by ſigns, that they were the ſubjects of a great monarch, called Montezuma, whoſe dominions extended over that and many other provinces.

Leaving this province, with which he had ſo much reaſon to be contented, Grijalva continued his courſe towards the weſt. He landed on a ſmall iſland, which he named the Iſle of Sacrifices, becauſe there the Spaniards beheld the horrid ſpectacle of human victims, which the barbarous ſuperſtitions of the natives offered to their gods. He touched at another ſmall iſland, which he called St. Juan de Ulua.

From this place he diſpatched Pedro de Alvarado, one of his officers, to Velaſquez, with a full account of the important diſcoveries he had made, and with all the treaſure that he had acquired by trafficking with the natives. After the departure of Alvarado, he himſelf, with the remaining veſſels, proceeded along the coaſt as far as the river Panuco, the country ſtill appearing to be well peopled, fertile, and opulent.

It was the opinion of ſeveral of Grijalva's officers, that it was not enough to have diſcovered thoſe delightful regions, or to have performed, at their different landing-places, the empty ceremony of

taking

taking poſſeſſion of them for the crown of Caſtile, and that their glory was incomplete, unleſs they planted a colony in ſome proper ſtation, which might not only ſecure the Spaniſh nation a footing in the country; but, with the reinforcements they were certain of receiving, might gradually ſubject the whole to the dominion of their ſovereign. However, the ſquadron had now been above five months at ſea, the greater part of their proviſions were exhauſted, and what remained of their ſtores ſo much corrupted by the heat of the climate, as to be almoſt unfit for uſe; they had loſt ſome men by death, and others were ſickly; the country was crouded with people, who ſeemed to be intelligent as well as brave, and they were under the government of one powerful monarch, who could bring them to act againſt their invaders with united force. To plant a colony under ſo many correſponding difficulties, appeared a matter too hazardous to be attempted. Though Grijalva was not without ambition and courage, yet he was deſtitute of the ſuperior abilities requiſite to form and execute ſo extenſive a plan. He judged it more prudent to return to Cuba, having fulfilled the purpoſe of his voyage, and accompliſhed every thing, which the armament he commanded enabled him to perform. He returned to St. Jago de Cuba,

Cuba, on the 26th of October, from whence he had failed about fix months, without having met with any material accident.

As this was the longeft, fo it had been the moft fuccefsful voyage the Spaniards had hitherto made in the New World. They had difcovered that Yucatan was not an ifland, as they had fuppofed, but part of the great continent of America. From Potonchan they had purfued their courfe for many hundred miles along a coaft formerly unexplored, ftretching at firft towards the weft, and then turning to the north. All the country they difcovered appeared to be no lefs valuable than extenfive. As foon as Avarado reached Cuba, Velafquez, tranfported with fuccefs fo far beyond his moft fanguine expectations, immediately difpatched a perfon of confidence to carry this important intelligence to Spain; to exhibit the rich productions of the countries which had been difcovered by his means; and to folicit fuch an increafe of authority, as might enable and encourage him to attempt the conqueft of them. Without waiting for the return of his meffenger, or for the arrival of Grijalva, of whom he was become fo jealous or diftruftful that he refolved no longer to employ him, he began to prepare fuch a powerful armament, as might

prove equal to an enterprife of fo much danger and importance. The little and mean jealoufies, which the Spaniards feem naturally to entertain of every man of merit, is a very fingular blemifh in the character of that nation.

The expedition, for which Velafquez was now preparing with fo much ardour and activity, had in its views conquefts far beyond what the Spanifh nation had hitherto accomplifhed. It led them to the knowledge of a people, who, if compared with thofe tribes of South America, and the Weft Indies, with whom they were hitherto acquainted, were infinitely more civilized, and far better acquainted with the arts of war, and the fciences in general. Before we proceed to the hiftory of events extremely different from thofe we have already related, it may not be improper to take a view of the ftate of the New World, fuch as it was when firft difcovered, and to contemplate the policies and manners of the rude uncultived tribes, by whom the different parts of it were occupied, and with whom the Spaniards at this time had intercourfe. This fhall be the fubject of our next chapter.

Memorable Events recorded in this Chapter.

1505 War with the American Indians.

1508 New difcoveries and fettlements.
. Diego Columbus appointed governor of Hifpaniola.

1510 Cuba conquered.

1512 Florida difcovered.

1513 The South Sea difcovered.
Pedrarias appointed governor of Darien.

1517 Balboa executed by the order of the treacherous Pedrarias.
Death of Ferdinand, king of Spain; fucceeded by Charles V.
Yucatan difcovered.

1518 Campeachy difcovered.
Grijalva difcovers New Spain, Tobafco, Guaxaca, and St. Juan de Ulua.

CHAP. IV

THE immenſe extent of the New World is a circumſtance that ſtrikes us with wonder. America is remarkable, not only for its magnitude, but for its poſition. It ſtretches from the northern polar circle to a high ſouthern latitude, above fifteen hundred miles beyond the furtheſt extremity of the old continent on that ſide of the line. Next to its extent, the grandeur of the objects which it preſents to our view is moſt apt to ſtrike the eye of an obſerver. Nature ſeems to have carried on her operations upon a larger ſcale, with a bolder hand, and to have diſtinguiſhed the features of this country by a peculiar magnificence. The mountains of America are much ſuperior in height to thoſe in the other diviſions of the globe. Even the plain of Quito, which may be conſidered as the baſe of the Andes, is elevated farther above the ſea, than the top of the Pyrenees. From thoſe lofty mountains deſcend rivers proportionably large, with which the ſtreams in the ancient continent are not to be compared, either for length or courſe, or the vaſt body of water, which they roll towards the ocean. Their lakes are no

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lefs confpicuous for grandeur than their mountains and rivers. They may properly be termed inland feas of frefh water.

The temperature of the climate of America, and the different laws to which it is fubject with refpect to the diftribution of heat and cold, are marks which particularly diftinguifh it from other parts of the earth. Throughout all thefe vaft regions, there were only two monarchies remarkable for extent of territory, or diftinguifhed by any progrefs in improvement. The reft of their continent was poffeffed by fmall independent tribes, deftitute of arts and induftry, and neither capable to correct the defects, nor defirous to meliorate the condition of that part of the earth allotted to them for their habitation. Countries, occupied by fuch people, were almoft in the fame ftate as if they had been without inhabitants.

Nothwithftanding the vaft extent of America, and the variety of its climates, the different fpecies of animals peculiar to it are much fewer in proportion, than thofe of the other hemifphere. In the iflands, there are only four kinds of quadrupeds known, the largeft of which did not exceed the fize of a rabbit. On the continent, the variety was greater; and though the individuals of each kind

could not fail of multiplying exceedingly, when almoſt unmoleſted by men, who were neither ſo numerous, nor ſo united in ſociety, as to be formidable enemies to the animal creation, yet the number of diſtinct ſpecies muſt be conſidered as extremely ſmall.

To the cauſes, which checked the growth and vigour of the more noble animals, may be attributed the propagation and encreaſe of reptiles and inſects. The air is often darkened with clouds of inſects, and the ground covered with ſhocking and noxious reptiles.

The American birds of the torrid zone, like thoſe of the ſame climate in Aſia and Africa, are decked in plumage, which dazzles the eye with the beauty of its colours; but nature, ſatisfied with clothing them in this gay dreſs, has denied moſt of them that melody of ſound, and variety of notes, which catch and delight the ear. Let my youthful readers ſtop here, and pauſe for a while; through all the conditions and circumſtances of life, they will find, on reflection, that the hand of Providence has diſtributed things more equally than they are aware of, as well in the human, as in the feathered race.

In a continent ſo extenſive as America, the nature of the ſoil muſt be various.

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In each of its provinces, we find ſome diſtinguiſhing peculiarity, the deſcription of which belongs to thoſe who write their particular hiſtory, and would be an idle attempt to deſcribe in this epitome.

How America was firſt peopled, by what courſe mankind migrated from one continent to the other, and in what quarter it is moſt probable the communication was firſt opened between them, are matters for which we have little grounds to go upon beyond that of conjecture. The theories and ſpeculations of ingenious men, with reſpect to this ſubject, would fill many volumes; but they are often ſo wild and chimerical, that it would be offering an inſult to the underſtanding of our readers, to attempt either to enumerate or refute them, even provided the limits of this work would admit of it.

To enquire into the character and condition of the American nations, at the time when they became known to the Europeans, deſerves more attentive conſideration, than the enquiry concerning their original. The diſcovery of the New World enlarged the ſphere of contemplation, and preſented nations to our view in a ſtate very rude and uncultivated. The greater part of its inhabitants were ſtrangers to induſtry and labour, ignorant of arts, imperfectly acquainted with the nature

nature of property, and enjoying almoſt without reſtriction or controul the bleſſings which flowed ſpontaneouſly from the bounty of nature. Among the ſmall independent tribes of South America, their cuſtoms, manners, and inſtitutions, were nearly ſimilar, and ſo extremely rude, that the denomination of *ſavages* may be applied to them all. The Spaniards, who firſt viſited America, and who had opportunity of beholding its various tribes, while entire and unſubdued, were far from poſſeſſing the qualities requiſite for obſerving the ſtriking ſpectacle preſented to their view. Neither the age in which they lived, nor the nation to which they belonged, had made ſuch progreſs in true ſcience as inſpires enlarged and liberal ſentiments. The conquerors of the New World were moſtly illiterate adventurers, deſtitute of all the ideas which ſhould have directed them in contemplating objects, ſo extremely different from thoſe with which they were acquainted. Surrounded continually with danger, or ſtruggling with hardſhips, they had little leiſure, and leſs capacity, for any ſpeculative enquiry. Eager to take poſſeſſion of a country of ſuch extent and opulence, and happy in finding it occupied by inhabitants ſo incapable to defend it, they haſtily pronounced them to be a wretched order

order of men, formed merely for servitude; and were more employed in computing the profits of their labour, than in enquiring into the operations of their minds, or the reason of their customs and institutions.

The human body is less affected by climate than that of any other animal. Some animals are confined to a particular region of the globe, and cannot exist beyond it; while others, though they may be brought to bear the injuries of a foreign climate, cease to multiply when carried from their native air and soil. Even such as seem capable of being naturalized in various climates, feel the effect of every remove from their proper station, and gradually dwindle and degenerate from the vigour and perfection peculiar to their species. Man is the only living creature, whose frame is at once so hardy and so flexible, that he can spread over the whole earth, become the inhabitant of every region, and thrive and multiply under every climate, though not without some attending inconveniences.

The complexion of the Americans is of a reddish brown, nearly resembling the colour of copper. Their persons are of a full size, extremely strait, and well proportioned; but they are more remarkable for agility than strength. As the external form of the Americans

Americans leads us to fuſpect, that there is ſome natural debility in their frame, the ſmallneſs of their appetite for food has been mentioned by many authors as a confirmation of this ſuſpicion. The quantity of food which men conſume varies according to the temperature of the climate in which they live, the degree of activity which they exert, and the natural vigour of their conſtitutions. Under the enervating heat of the torrid zone, and where men paſs their days in indolence and eaſe, they require leſs nouriſhment than the active inhabitants of temperate or cold countries.

Notwithſtanding the feeble make of the Americans, hardly any of them are deformed, mutilated, or defective in any of their ſenſes. All travellers have been ſtruck with this circumſtance, and have celebrated the uniform ſymmetry and perfection of their external figure.

In the ſimplicity of the ſavage ſtate, when man is not oppreſſed with labour, or enervated by luxury, or diſquieted with care, we are apt to imagine, that his life will flow on almoſt untroubled by diſeaſe or ſuffering, until his days be terminated, in extreme old age, by the gradual decays of nature. We find, accordingly, among the Americans, as well as among other rude people, perſons,

whoſe

whofe decrepid and fhrivilled forms feem to indicate an extraordinary length of life; but as moft of them are unacquainted with the art of numbering, and all of them as forgetful of what is paft, as they are improvident for what is to come, it is impoffible to afcertain their age with any degree of precifion.

Whatever may be the fituation in which man is placed, he is born to fuffer; and his difeafes, in the favage ftate, though fewer in number, are, like thofe of the animals, whom he nearly refembles in his mode of life, more violent and more fatal. If luxury engenders and nourifhes diftempers of one fpecies, the rigour and diftrefs of favage life bring on thofe of another. As men, in this ftate, are wonderfully improvident, and their means of fubfiftence precarious, they often pafs from extreme want to exuberant plenty, according to the viciffitudes of fortune in the chafe, or in confequence of the various degree of abundance, with which the earth affords to them its productions in different feafons. Their inconfiderate gluttony in the one fituation, and their fevere abftinence in the other, are equally pernicious. The ftrength and vigour of favages are at fome feafons, impaired by what they fuffer from fcarcity of food; at others,

they

they are afflicted with diforders arifing from indigeftion and a fuperfluity of grofs aliment. Thefe are fo common, that they may be confidered as the unavoidable confequence of their mode of fubfifting, and cut off confiderable numbers in the prime of life. There are other diforders, to which they are continually expofed, owing to the inclemency of different feafons. In the favage ftate, hardfhips and fatigues violently affault the conftitution; in polifhed focieties, intemperance undermines it. It is not eafy to determine, which of them operates with moft fatal effects, or tends moft to abridge human life.

The thoughts and attention of a favage are confined within the fmall circle of objects, immediately conducive to his prefervation or enjoyment. Every thing beyond that is beneath his obfervations, or is entirely indifferent to him. Like a mere animal, what is before his eyes interefts and affects him; what is out of fight, or at a diftance, makes little impreffion. They follow blindly the impulfe of the appetite they feel, but are entirely regardlefs of diftant confequences, and even of thofe removed in the leaft degree from immediate apprehenfion.

The active efforts of their minds are few and languid. The defires of fimple

nature

nature are very limited, and where a favourable climate yields almoſt ſpontaneouſly what ſuffices to gratify them, they ſcarcely ſtir the ſoul, or excite any violent emotion. Hence the people of ſeveral tribes in America waſte their lives in a ſtate of indolence.

To be free from occupation, ſeems to be all the enjoyment to which they aſpire. Such is their averſion to labour, that neither the hope of future good, nor the apprehenſion of evil, can ſurmount it. They appear equally indifferent to both, diſcovering little ſolicitude, and taking no precaution to avoid the one, or to ſecure the other. The cravings of hunger may rouſe them; but as they devour, with little diſtinction, whatever will appeaſe its inſtinctive demands, the exertions theſe occaſion are of ſhort duration.

Amongſt the rudeſt tribes in America, a regular union between huſband and wife was univerſal, and the rights of marriage were underſtood and recognized. In thoſe diſtricts where ſubſiſtence was ſcanty, and the difficulty of maintaining a family was great, the man confined himſelf to one wife. In warmer and more fertile provinces, the facility of procuring food concurred with the influence of climate, in inducing the inhabitants to encreaſe the number of their wives. In ſome coun-

tries, the marriage union fubfifted during life; in others, the impatience of the Americans under reftraint of any fpecies, together with their natural levity and caprice, prompted them to diffolve it on very flight pretexts, and often without affigning any caufe.

The fituation of the American women, in whatever light we confider them, was equally humiliating and miferable. Among many people of America, the marriage contract is properly a purchafe. The man buys his wife of her parents. Though unacquainted with the ufe of money, or with fuch commercial tranfactions as take place in more improved fociety, he knows how to give an equivalent for an object he defires to poffefs. In fome places, the fuitor devotes his fervice for a certain time to the parent of the maid whom he courts; in others, he hunts for them occafionally, or affifts in cultivating their fields, and forming their canoes; in others, he offers prefents of fuch things as are deemed moft valuable on account of their ufefulnefs or rarity. In return for thefe, he receives his wife; and this circumftance, added to the low eftimation of women among favages, leads him to confider her as a female fervant whom he has purchafed, and whom he has a title to treat as an inferior. The condition

dition of an American woman is ſo peculiarly grievous, and their depreſſion ſo complete, that ſervitude is a name too mild to deſcribe their wretched ſtate. A wife, among moſt tribes, is no better than a beaſt of burden, deſtined to every office of labour and fatigue. While the men loiter out the day in ſloth, or ſpend it in amuſement, the women are condemned to inceſſant toil. Taſks are impoſed upon them without pity, and ſervices are received without complacence or gratitude. Every circumſtance reminds women of this mortifying inferiority. They muſt approach their lords with reverence, regard them as more exalted beings, and are not permitted to eat in their preſence.

The Americans are not deficient in affection and attachment to their offspring. They feel the power of this inſtinct in its full force, and as long as their progeny continue feeble and helpleſs, no people exceed them in tenderneſs and care. In the ſimplicity of the ſavage ſtate, the affections of parents, like the inſtinctive fondneſs of animals, ceaſes almoſt entirely as ſoon as their offspring attain maturity. Little inſtruction fits them for that mode of life to which they are deſtined. The parents, as if their duty were accompliſhed, when they have conducted their children

 through

through the helplefs years of infancy, leave them afterwards at entire liberty. In an American hut, a father, a mother, and their pofterity, live together like perfons affembled by accident, without feeming to feel the obligation of the duties mutually arifing from fuch connection.

Though the people of America may be all comprehended under the general denomination of favage, the advances they had made in the art of procuring to themfelves a certain and plentiful fubfiftence, were very unequal. On the vaft plains of South America, man appears in one of the rudeft ftates, in which he poffibly can exift, feveral tribes depending entirely upon the bounty of nature for fubfiftence. They difcover no folicitude, they employ little forefight, and fcarcely exert any induftry, to fecure what is neceffary for their fupport. The roots which the earth produces fpontaneoufly, the fruits, the berries, and the feeds, which they gather in the woods, together with lizards and other reptiles, which multiply amazingly with the heat of the climate in a fat foil, moiftened by frequent rains, fupply them with food during fome part of the year. At other times they live upon fifh; and nature feems to have indulged the lazinefs of the South American tribes by her liberalities in this way. The vaft rivers of

of that part of America abound with an infinite variety of delicate fiſh, and are ſo numerous as to be caught with little trouble. None but tribes contiguous to great rivers can ſupport themſelves in this manner. The greater part of the American nations, diſperſed over the foreſts with which their country is covered, do not procure ſubſiſtence with the ſame facility; but are obliged to obtain it by hunting, which in many parts is their principal occupation, and which requires ſtrenuous exertions.

As game and fiſh are the principal food of the Americans, their agriculture is neither extenſive nor laborious. Their principal productions in this line are maze, manioc, plantain, potatoes, and pimento. All the fruits of their induſtry, together with what their ſoil and climate produced ſpontaneouſly, afforded them but a ſcanty maintenance. Though their demands for food were very ſparing, they hardly raiſed what was ſufficient for their own conſumption.

In America, the word nation is not of the ſame import as in other parts of the globe. It is applied to ſmall ſocieties, perhaps not exceeding two or three hundred perſons, but occupying provinces larger than ſome kingdoms in Europe. In the provinces which border on the

Oronoco, one may travel feveral hundred miles, in different directions, without finding a fingle hut, or obferving the footfteps of a human creature.

The Americans had no idea of property. As the animals on which the hunter feeds are not bred under his infpection, nor nourifhed by his care, he can claim no right to them while they run wild in the foreft. The forefts, or hunting grounds, are deemed the property of the tribe, from which it has a title to exclude every rival nation; but no individual arrogates a right to any diftrict of thefe, in preference to his fellow-citizen.

We fhall now proceed to take a curfory view of their art of war. Savage nations, in carrying on their public wars, are influenced by the fame ideas, and animated with the fame fpirit, as in profecuting private vengeance. The maxims by which they regulate their military operations, though extremely different from thofe, which take place among more civilized and populous nations, are well fuited to their own political ftate, and the nature of the country in which they act. They never take the field in numerous bodies, as it would require a greater effort of forefight and induftry, than is ufual among favages, to provide for their fubfiftence, during a march of fome hundred miles

through

through dreary forests, or during a long voyage upon their lakes and rivers.

Their armies are not encumbered with baggage or military stores. Each warrior, besides his arms, carries a mat and a small bag of pounded maize, and with these he is completely equipped for any service. While at a distance from the enemies frontier, they disperse through the woods, and support themselves with the game they kill, and the fish they catch. The manner in which they attack their enemies, the treatment of their prisoners, and the surprizing fortitude they shew in bearing the most cruel tortures, being nearly the same among the South American Indians as among those of the North, we shall not here repeat what we have already mentioned on that head in our History of North America.

In the warmer and more mild climates of America, none of the rude tribes were cloathed. To most of them Nature had not even suggested any Idea of impropriety of being altogether uncovered. As under a mild climate there was little need of any defence from the injuries of the air, and their extreme indolence shunned every species of labour to which it was not urged by absolute necessity, all the inhabitants of the isles, and a considerable part of the people on the continent, remained in this

state

ſtate of naked ſimplicity. Others were ſatisfied with ſome ſlight covering, ſuch as decency required; but though naked, they were not unadorned. They faſtened bits of gold or ſhells, or ſhining ſtones, in their ears, their noſes, and cheeks. They ſtained their ſkins with a great variety of figures, and they ſpent much time, and ſubmitted to great pain, in ornamenting their perſons in this fantaſtic manner.

In one part of their dreſs, which, at firſt ſight appears the moſt ſingular and capricious, the Americans have diſcovered conſiderable ſagacity in providing againſt the chief inconveniences of their climate, which is often ſultry, and moiſt to exceſs. All the different tribes, which remain unclothed, are acuſtomed to anoint and rub their bodies with the greaſe of animals, with viſcous gums, and with oils of different kinds. By this they check that profuſe perſpiration, which in the torrid zone, waſtes the vigour of the frame, and abridges the period of human life. By this too they provide a defence againſt the extreme moiſture during the rainy ſeaſon. They likewiſe, at certain ſeaſons, temper paint of different colours with thoſe unctious ſubſtances, and bedaub themſelves plentifully with that compoſition. Sheathed with this impenetrable varniſh,

their ſkins are not only protected from the penetrating heat of the ſun, but, as all the innumerable tribes of inſects have an antipathy to the ſmell or taſte of that mixture, they are delivered from their teazing perſecutions, which amidſt foreſts and marſhes, eſpecially in the warmer regions, would have been wholely inſupportable in a ſtate of perfect nakedneſs.

Savage nations, being far from that ſtate of improvement, in which the mode of living is conſidered as a mark of diſtinction, and unacquainted with thoſe wants, which require a variety of accommodations, regulate the conſtruction of their houſes according to their limited ideas of neceſſity. Some of the American tribes were ſo extremely rude, and had advanced ſo little beyond the primeval ſimplicity of nature, that they had no houſes at all. During the day, they took ſhelter from the ſcorching rays of the ſun under thick trees, and at night they formed a ſhed with their branches and leaves. In the rainy ſeaſons, they retired into caves, formed by the hand of nature, or hollowed out by their own induſtry. Others, who had no fixed abode, and roamed through the foreſt in queſt of game, ſojourned in temporary huts, which they erected with little labour, and abandoned without any concern.

Clubs made of ſome heavy wood, ſtakes hardened in the fire, lances whoſe heads were armed with flint or the bone of ſome animal, are weapons known to the rudeſt nations. All theſe, however, were of uſe only in cloſe encounter; but men wiſhed to annoy their enemies while at a diſtance, and the bow and arrow is the moſt early invention for this purpoſe. The people in ſome provinces of Chili, and thoſe of Patagonia, towards the ſouthern extremity of America, uſe a weapon peculiar to themſelves. They faſten ſtones, about the ſize of a man's fiſt, to each end of a leather thong of eight feet in length, and ſwinging theſe round their heads, throw them with ſuch dexterity, that they ſeldom miſs the object they aim at.

As their food and habitations are perfectly ſimple, their domeſtic utenſils are few and rude. Some of the ſouthern tribes diſcovered the art of forming veſſels of earthen ware, and baking them in the ſun, ſo as they could endure the fire. Theſe veſſels they uſed in preparing part of their proviſions, and this may be conſidered as a ſtep towards refinement and luxury; for men in their rudeſt ſtate were not acquainted with any method of dreſſing their victuals, but by roaſting them on the fire, and among ſeveral tribes

in

in America this is the only ſpecies of cookery yet known.

What appears to be the maſter-piece of art among the ſavages of America is the conſtruction of their canoes. An Indian, ſhut up in his boat of whalebone, covered with ſkins, can brave that ſtormy ocean, on which he is compelled to depend for part of his ſubſiſtence. The inhabitants of the iſles in South America form their canoes by hollowing the trunk of a large tree, with infinite labour, and though in appearance they are extremely aukward and unwieldly, they paddle and ſteer them with ſuch dexterity, that Europeans, well acquainted with all the improvements in the ſcience of navigation, have been aſtoniſhed at the rapidity of their motion, and the quickneſs of their evolutions.

With reſpect to their religion, even among thoſe tribes, whoſe religious ſyſtem was more enlarged, and who had formed ſome conception of benevolent beings, which delighted in conferring benefits, as well as of malicious powers prone to inflict evil, ſuperſtition ſtill appears as the offſpring of fear, and all its efforts were employed to avert calamities. They were perſuaded that their good deities, prompted by the beneficence of their nature, would beſtow every bleſſing in their power, without ſolicitation or acknowledgement; and

their

their only anxiety was to footh and deprecate the wrath of the powers, whom they regarded as the enemies of mankind.

With refpect to the immortality of the foul, the fentiments of the Americans were more united. The human mind, even when leaft improved and invigorated by culture, fhrinks from the thoughts of diffolution, and looks forward with hope and expectation to a ftate of future exiftence. The moft uncivilized favages of America do not apprehend death as the extinction of being: all entertain hopes of a future and more happy ftate, where they fhall be for ever exempt from the calamities, which embitter human life in its prefent condition. This future ftate they conceive to be a delightful country, bleffed with perpetual fpring, whofe forefts abound with game, whofe rivers fwarm with fifh, where famine is never felt, and uninterrupted plenty fhall be enjoyed without labour or toil.

As the difeafes of men in the favage ftate are like thofe of the animal creation, few but extremely violent, their impatience under what they fuffer, and folicitude for the recovery of health, foon infpired them with extraordinary reverence for fuch as pretended to underftand the nature of their maladies, or to preferve them from their fudden and fatal effects. However, thefe

ignorant pretenders being ſuch utter ſtrangers to the ſtructure of the human frame, as to know neither the cauſes of diſorders, nor the manner in which they were likely to terminate, ſuperſtition, frequently mingled with ſome portion of craft, ſupplied what they wanted in knowledge. They imputed the origin of diſeaſes to ſupernatural influence, and adviſed or performed a variety of ſuperſtitious rites, which they repreſented to be ſufficient to remove the moſt obſtinate and dangerous diſorders.

From the ſuperſtition and credulity of the Americans likewiſe proceeded their faith in dreams, their obſervation of omens, their attention to the chirping of birds, and the cries of animals, all which they ſuppoſed to be indications of future events; and if any one of their prognoſtics was deemed unfavourable, they eagerly abandoned the object they had in purſuit.

Savage as the Americans were, they were not without their amuſements; and of theſe dancing appears to be the principal. The war-dance ſeems to be the moſt ſtriking, in which are repreſented all the manæuvres of an American campaign. Their ſongs and dances are moſtly ſolemn and martial, they are connected with ſome of the moſt ſerious and important affairs of life, and, having no relation to love

or gallantry, are ſeldom common to the two ſexes, but executed by the men and women apart.

The Americans are univerſally fond of gaming. Though they are at other times ſo indifferent, phlegmatic, ſilent, and animated with ſo few deſires, as ſoon as they engage in play, they become rapacious, impatient, noiſy, and almoſt frantic with eagerneſs. Their furs, their domeſtic utenſils, their clothes, their arms, are ſtaked at play, and when all is loſt, high as their ſenſe of independence is, in a wild emotion of hope or deſpair, they will often riſk their perſonal liberty upon a ſingle bet. Among ſeveral tribes, ſuch gaming parties are frequently made, and become their moſt agreeable entertainment at every great feſtival.

The ſame cauſes that contribute to render them fond of play, is the cauſe of drunkenneſs among them. It ſeems to have been one of the firſt exertions of the human ingenuity to diſcover ſome compoſition of an intoxicating quality; and there is hardly any nation ſo rude, or ſo deſtitute of invention, as not to have ſucceeded in this fatal reſearch. The moſt barbarous of the American tribes have been ſo unfortunate as to attain this art; and even thoſe, which are ſo deficient in knowledge, as not to be acquainted with

the method of giving an inebriating ſtrength to liquors by fermentation, can accompliſh the ſame by ſome other means.

It is cuſtomary with the American Indians, when their parents and other relations become old, or labour under any diſtemper which they have not art enough to cure, to put an end to their lives, in order to be relieved from the burden of tending and ſupporting them. The ſame hardſhips and difficulty of procuring ſubſiſtence, which prevent ſavages, in ſome caſes, from rearing their children, prompt them to deſtroy the aged and infirm. The declining ſtate of the one is as helpleſs as the infancy of the other; and the American thinks he does nothing more than his duty, in eaſing his father or friend of a burthenſome life of pain and diſeaſe.

A hardneſs of heart and inſenſibility of feeling are remarkable in all ſavage nations. Their minds, rouſed only by ſtrong emotions, are little ſuſceptible of gentle, delicate, or tender affections. When any favour is done him, he neither feels gratitude, nor thinks of making any return. The high idea of independence among the Americans nouriſhes a ſullen reſerve, which keeps them at a diſtance from each other.

A ſavage, frequently placed in ſituations of danger or diſtreſs, depending on no one but himſelf, and wrapped up in his own thoughts and ſchemes, is a ſerious and melancholy animal. The American, when not engaged in action, often ſits whole days in one poſture, without opening his lips. When they engage in war or the chace, they uſually march in a line at ſome diſtance from each other, and do not exchange a ſingle word. Even in their canoes, the ſame profound ſilence is obſerved; and nothing but intoxicating liquors or jollity attending their dances, can at any rate render them in the leaſt converſable.

We may attribute the refined cunning, with which they form and execute their ſchemes, to the ſame cauſes. With the American Indians, war is a ſyſtem of craft, in which they truſt for ſucceſs to ſtratagem more than to open force, and have their invention continually at work to circumvent and ſurpriſe their enemies. The people of the rude tribes of America are remarkable for their artifice and duplicity. The natives of Peru were employed above thirty years, in forming the plan of an inſurrection, which took place under the vice-royalty of the Marquis de Villa Garcia; and though a great number of people

people of different ranks, were let into the ſecret, yet not a ſyllable of it tranſpired during all that period; no man betrayed his truſt, or by an unguarded look, or imprudent word, gave riſe to any ſuſpicion of what was meditating.

However, let us not ſuppoſe that the Americans were without their virtues, among which fortitude and courage were remarkably conſpicuous. Accuſtomed as the Indians are to continual alarms, they grow familiar with danger; courage becomes an habitual virtue, reſulting naturally from their ſituation, and ſtrengthened by conſtant exertions. They are naturally attached to the community of which they are members. From the nature of their political union, we ſhould be led to ſuppoſe this tie to be very feeble; but each individual freely and cheerfully undertakes the moſt perilous ſervice, when the community deems it neceſſary. They have a fierce and deep-rooted antipathy to the enemies of their country, and that zeal for the honour of their tribe, which prompts them to brave danger in the purſuit of triumph, and to endure the moſt exquiſite torments, without a groan, that it may not be diſhonoured. Far from com-

plaining of their own ſituation, or viewing that of men in a more improved ſtate with admiration or envy, they regard themſelves as the ſtandard of excellence, as being the beſt entitled, as well as the moſt perfectly qualified, to enjoy real happineſs.

CHAP.

CHAP. V.

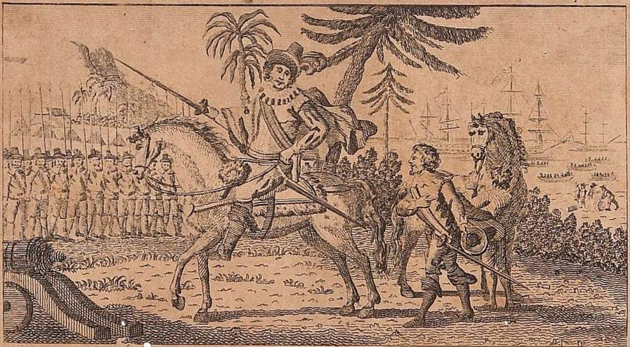
AMBITION and avarice united to induce Velasquez to prepare for the conquest of New Spain, so that when Grijalva returned to Cuba, he found the armament destined to attempt the conquest of that rich country he had discovered, almost complete and ready to sail. Velasquez knew not whom to entrust with the command of this important expedition. Though he was of a most aspiring ambition, and not destitute of talents for government, he possessed neither such courage, nor such vigour and activity of mind, as to undertake in person the conduct of the armament he was preparing. He meanly wished to find some person, who had bravery and abilities equal to the undertaking, but would attribute all the honour and glory to him. After some time searching for such a person, and finding that no man of abilities would submit to such disgraceful terms, he at last appointed Fernando Cortes to the command. Cortes was a man of noble blood, but whose family was of moderate fortune: he was a good soldier, and every way qualified for such an undertaking.

Though

Though the governor had laid out confiderable fums, and each adventurer had exhaufted his ftock, or ftrained his credit, the poverty of the preparation was fuch, as muft aftonifh the prefent age, and bore no refemblance to an armament deftined for the conqueft of a great empire. The fleet confifted of eleven veffels, the largeft of one hundred tons, which was dignified with the name of Admiral; three of feventy or eighty tons, and the reft fmall open barks. On board of thefe were 617 men; of which 508 belonged to the land-fervice, and 109 were feamen or artificers. As the ufe of fire-arms among the nations of Europe was hitherto confined to a few battalions of regular difciplined infantry, only thirteen foldiers were armed with mufkets; thirty-two were crofs-bow men, and the reft had fwords and fpears. They had only fixteen horfes, and ten fmall field-pieces.

On the 10th of February, 1519, Cortes failed with this fmall armament to attack a moft powerful monarch. He touched firft at Cozumal, then at Tabafco, and on the 2d of April arrived at St. Juan de Ulua in Mexico. As foon as they entered the harbour, a boat came off to them, to know what was the intention of their vifit, and to offer them their affiftance if needful. Cortes affured them, in refpectful

terms,



Landing of Cortez in Peru.

terms, which he did by means of an interpreter, that he approached their country with moſt friendly ſentiments, and came to propoſe matters of great importance to the welfare of their prince and his kingdom, which he would unfold more fully, in perſon, to the governor and the general. Next morning, without waiting for any anſwer, he landed his troops, his horſes, and artillery; and having choſen proper ground, began to erect huts for his men, and fortify his camp

The Mexicans treated the Spaniards with the greateſt civility, but wiſhed to divert them from their intention of viſiting the capital, where the emperor Montezuma reſided. For this purpoſe, they commenced a negociation, by introducing a train of an hundred Indians loaded with preſents, ſent from Montezuma to Cortes. The magnificence of theſe were ſuch as became a great monarch, and far exceeded any idea the Spaniards had hitherto formed of his wealth. They were placed upon mats ſpread on the ground, in ſuch order as ſhewed them to the greateſt advantage. Cortes and his officers viewed with admiration the various manufactures of the country; cotton ſtuffs ſo fine, and of ſuch delicate texture, as to reſemble ſilks; pictures of animals, trees, and other natural objects, formed with feathers of different

different colours, diſpoſed and mingled with ſuch ſkill and elegance, as to rival the works of the pencil in truth and beauty of imitation; but what more particularly attracted the attention of the Spaniards, was the amazing quantity of unwrought gold and ſilver, and the profuſion of pearls and precious ſtones, the produce of the country.

Theſe rich preſents, inſtead of inducing the Spaniards to quit Mexico, made them the more reſolute to make a conqueſt of it. Cortes inſiſted on viſiting the king in his capital, and declared he would not leave the iſland till that was granted. Of all the princes who had ſwayed the Mexican ſceptre, Montezuma was the moſt haughty, violent, and impatient of controul. His ſubjects viewed him with awe, and his enemies with terror. The former he governed with unrelenting rigour, and the latter he reduced to awe by the power of his arms. However, though his power and tyranny kept his ſubjects and neighbours in awe, yet he wanted thoſe quanties of mind, which were neceſſary to intimidate and ſubdue his new viſitors.

Montezuma, from the moment the Spaniards appeared on his coaſt, diſcovered ſymptoms of timidity and embarraſſment. Inſtead of taking ſuch reſolutions as his power enabled him, he deliberated with an anxiety

anxiety and hefitation that did not efcape the notice of the meaneft of his courtiers. He fpent his time in fruitlefs negociations with the Spaniards, and thereby raifed their courage and confequence.

In the mean time, Cortes was watching the opportunity to throw off all connections with Velafquez, whofe natural jealoufy had induced him to endeavour to deprive Cortes of the command of the expedition before he failed. He got the confidence of the officers and foldiers, and, having affembled a council, he refigned the commiffion he had received from Velafquez, and was immediately chofen chief-juftice and captain-general of the new colony.

Cortes owed much of his fuccefs to the Mexican gold, which he diftributed with a liberal hand among both friends and opponents, and thereby brought all to be of one mind. Having thus fettled every thing to the fatisfaction of his army, by engaging it to join him in difclaiming any dependence on the governor of Cuba, he thought he might now venture to quit the camp, in which he had hitherto remained, and advance into the country. To this he was encouraged by an event no lefs fortunate than feafonable. He received a proffer of friendfhip from the cazique of Zimpoalla, a confiderable town at no great diftance. He found by their meffage,

that

that they were filled with fuch dread and hatred of Montezuma, that nothing could be more acceptable to them, than a profpect of deliverance from the oppreffions under which they groaned. Cortes was highly delighted to find, that the great empire he intended to attack was not united, nor its fovereign beloved.

Some officers, whom Cortes had employed to furvey the coaft, having difcovered a village about forty miles to the northward, which, as well on account of the fertility of the foil, as commodioufnefs of the harbour, feemed to be a more proper ftation for a fettlement than that where he was encamped, he determined to remove thither; Zimpoalla lay in his way, where the cazique welcomed him in the manner he had reafon to expect. He received Cortes with refpect, almoft approaching to adoration, and like one to whom he looked up as a deliverer. From the cazique he learned many particulars with refpect to the character of Montezuma, whom he reprefented as a tyrant, haughty, cruel and fufpicious. Cortes affured the cazique, that one great object of the Spaniards in vifiting a country fo remote from their own, was to redrefs grievances, and to relieve the oppreffed.

Having taken his leave of the cazique, he continued his march to Quiabiflan.

The

The ſpot his officers had choſen as a proper ſituation, appeared ſo well to meet his approbation, that he immediately marked out ground for a town. The houſes to be erected were only huts; but theſe were to be ſurrounded with fortifications, of ſufficient ſtrength to reſiſt the aſſaults of an Indian army. Every one, even Cortes not excepted, gave an helping hand to the erecting of fortifications, ſo eſſential to the preſervation of every individual of the colony. His next care was to form an alliance with the neighbouring kings, whom he taught to deſpiſe their emperor, by gradually inſpiring them with an high opinion of the Spaniards, as beings of a ſuperior order, and irreſiſtible in arms.

Cortes perceiving that ſome of his men grew tired of their preſent purſuits, and had even formed the plan of making their eſcape to Cuba in one of the ſhips, ſaw no hopes of ſucceſs, but in cutting off all poſſibility of retreat, and reducing his men to the neceſſity of adopting the ſame reſolutions with which he himſelf was animated, either to conquer or periſh. With this view he determined to deſtroy his fleet, and his addreſs in perſuading his followers to adopt his ideas, was not inferior to the boldneſs of the undertaking. With univerſal conſent the ships were drawn aſhore, and after ſtripping them of

their ſails, rigging, iron work, and whatever elſe might be of uſe, they were broken in pieces. Thus, from an effort of magnanimity, to which there is nothing parallel in hiſtory, five hundred men voluntarily conſented to be ſhut up in a hoſtile country, filled with powerful and unknown nations; and, having precluded every means of eſcape, left themſelves without any reſource but what their own perſeverance and valour could procure them, and on which every thing now depended.

On the 16th of Auguſt, 1519, Cortes began his march from Zimpoalla, with five hundred men, fifteen horſe, and ſix field pieces. The remainder of his troops, conſiſting chiefly of ſuch as from age or infirmity were leſs fit for active ſervice, he left as a garriſon in Villa Rica, under the command of Eſcalante, an officer of merit, and warmly attached to the intereſt of Cortes.

The firſt war he engaged in was with the Haſcalans, who advanced againſt him with numerous armies, and attacked him in various forms, with a degree of valour and perſeverance, to which the Spaniards had ſeen nothing equal in the New World. The Haſcalans, however, were at laſt glad to ſue for peace, ſeeing their own people ſo dreadfully deſtroyed, while the Spaniards remained unhurt.

"If

"If (said they to the Spaniards) you are divinities of a cruel and savage nature, we present to you five slaves, that you may drink their blood and eat their flesh. If you are mild deities, accept an offer of incense and variegated plumes. If you are men, here is meat, and bread and fruit, to nourish you." As both parties were equally desirable of peace, matters were soon settled between them. The Hascalans acknowledged themselves as dependant on the crown of Castile; when Cortes took the republic under his protection, and promised to secure them against every attempt of injury or violence on their persons or property.

On the 13th of October, Cortes set out on his march for Mexico, accompanied by six thousand Hascalans; so that he now appeared at the head of something like a regular army. As the Spaniards descended from the mountains of Chalco, over which the road lay, the vast plain of Mexico gradually unfolded itself to their view. This prospect afforded one of the most striking and beautiful views on the face of the earth; when they beheld fertile and cultivated fields, stretching beyond the reach of the human eye; when they saw a lake resembling the sea in extent, encompassed with large towns, and beheld the capital city rising upon an island in the

the centre, adorned with its temples and turrets; the profpect fo far furpaffed their moft fanguine expectations, that fome believed the fanciful defcriptions of romance were realized, and that its enchanted palaces and gilded domes were prefented to their fight; others could hardly perfuade themfelves, that this wonderful fight was any thing more than a dream. As they proceeded their doubts were removed, but their amazement encreafed.

Cortes was almoft at the gates of the capital before Montezuma had determined, whether he fhould receive him as a friend, or oppofe him as an enemy. On their arrival near the city, about a thoufand perfons, who bore marks of diftinction, came out to meet them, dreffed in mantles of fine cotton, and adorned with plumes. Each of thefe feparately paffed Cortes, and paid the moft fubmiffive obedience to him according to the mode of their country. They announced the approach of Montezuma himfelf, and his harbingers foon after came in fight. Two hundred perfons in an uniform drefs firft appeared, ornamented with feathers, proceeding two and two, barefooted, and in profound filence, with their eyes fixed on the ground. A company of higher rank next followed, in their moft fumptuous ornaments; in the midft of whom was Montezuma, in a

litter

litter richly ornamented with gold, and feathers of various colours. He was carried on the ſhoulders of four of his principal favourites, while others ſupported a canopy of curious workmanſhip over his head. Before him marched three officers with rods of gold in their hands, which they lifted up on high at certain intervals, when all the people immediately bowed their heads and hid their faces, as unworthy to look on ſo great a monarch. As ſoon as he approached, Cortes diſmounted, advanced towards him with officious haſte, and in a reſpectful poſture. Montezuma immediately alighted from his chair, and leaning on the arms of two of his near relations, approached with a ſlow and ſtately ſtep, his attendants covering the ſtreets with cotton cloth, that he might not touch the ground. Cortes accoſted him with profound reverence, after the European faſhion; and Montezuma returned the ſalutation according to the mode of his country, by touching the earth with his hand, and then kiſſing it. Montezuma conducted Cortes to the quarters he had prepared for his reception, and immediately took leave of him with a politeneſs not unworthy of a court more refined. Nothing material paſſed at this firſt interview.

In

In the evening, Montezuma returned to viſit his gueſts with the ſame pomp as in their firſt interview. He told Cortes, that from what he had heard and ſeen of him and his followers, he was convinced, that they were the very perſons, whoſe appearance the Mexican traditions and prophecies taught them to expect, in order to reform their conſtitutions and laws; that he had accordingly received them, not as ſtrangers, but as relations of the ſame blood and parentage, and deſired that they might conſider themſelves as maſters in his dominions, for both himſelf and his ſubjects ſhould be ready to comply with their will, and even to prevent their wiſhes. The three ſubſequent days were employed in viewing the city; the appearance of which, ſo far ſuperior in the order of its buildings, and the number of its inhabitants, to any place the Spaniards had beheld in America, filled them with wonder and ſurpriſe.

Though the novelty of theſe objects amuſed the Spaniards, yet they were not without their alarms on account of their ſafety. The allies of the Spaniards aſſured Cortes, that the Mexican prieſts had, in the name of the gods, counſelled their ſovereign to admit the Spaniards into the capital, that he might cut them off there at one blow with perfect ſecurity.

Cortes

Cortes very plainly perceived, that his deſtruction was intended; it was therefore neceſſary to extricate himſelf out of the difficulties, in which one bold ſtep had involved him, by venturing upon another ſtill bolder. The ſituation was trying, but his mind was equal to it; and, after revolving the matter with deep attention, he fixed upon a plan no leſs extraordinary than daring. He determined to ſeize Montezuma in his palace, and to carry him as a priſoner to the Spaniſh quarters. The plan being properly ſettled between Cortes and his officers, this powerful prince was ſeized by a few ſtrangers, in the midſt of his capital, at noon day, and carried off as a priſoner without oppoſition or bloodſhed. Hiſtory contains nothing parallel to this event, either with reſpect to the temerity of the attempt, or the ſucceſs of the execution; and were not all the circumſtances of this extraordinary tranſaction authenticated by the moſt unqueſtionable evidence, they would appear ſo wild and extravagant, as to go far beyond the bounds of reaſon and probability.

On the 4th of December, 1519, Qualcopoca, the ſon of Montezuma, and five of the principal officers who ſerved under him, were brought priſoners to the capital, formally tried by a Spaniſh

court-

court-martial, and, though they had acted no other part than what became loyal subjects and brave men, they were condemned to be burnt alive, which was immediately put in execution. The rigour with which Cortes punished the unhappy persons, who first presumed to lay violent hands upon his followers, seems to have made all the impressions he desired. The spirit of Montezuma was not only overawed, but subdued. During six months that Cortes remained in Mexico, the Monarch continued in the Spanish quarters, with an appearance of an entire satisfaction and tranquillity, as if he had resided there, not from constraint, but through choice. His ministers and officers attended him as usual, he took cognizance of all affairs, and every order was issued in his name. The external aspect of government appearing the same, and all its ancient forms being scrupulously observed, the people were so little sensible of any change, that they obeyed the mandates of their monarch with the same submissive reverence as ever. Thus, by the fortunate temerity of Cortes in seizing Montezuma, the Spaniards at once secured to themselves more extensive authority in the Mexican empire, than it was possible to have acquired in a long course of time by open force; and they exercised more

abfolute fway in the name of another, than they could have done in their own.

Cortes, encouraged by fo many inftances of the monarch's tame fubmiffion to his will, ventured to put it to a proof ftill more trying. He urged Montezuma to acknowledge himfelf a vaffal of the king of Caftile, to hold his crown of him as fuperior, and to fubject his dominions to the payment of an annual tribute. With this requifition, the laft and moft humbling that can be made to one poffeffed of fovereign authority, Montezuma was fo obfequious as to comply. The act of fubmiffion and homage was executed with all the formalities the Spaniards were pleafed to dictate.

The next attempt Cortes made was to alter their religion, which had fuch an effect upon the Mexicans, that they determined to deftroy the Spaniards if they perfifted in it; and even Montezuma himfelf had expreffed his wifh to Cortes, that he would think of returning home.

While things continued in this critical fituation, Cortes, anxious about what was paft, uncertain with refpect to the future, and much oppreffed by the late declaration of the Mexicans, he received an account of fome fhips having appeared on the coaft. He idly imagined, that his meffengers were returned from Spain, and that the completion

pletion of all his hopes and wishes were at hand. However, a courier soon brought certain information, that the armament was fitted out by Velasquez, governor of Cuba, and, instead of bringing the aid they expected, threatened them with immediate destruction. This armament was commanded by Pamphilo de Narvaez.

Cortes was now greatly alarmed, as Narvaez seemed determined to ruin him, having received orders from Velasquez to seize him, and send him to Cuba in irons. Cortes at first attempted to treat with his enemies; but finding that impossible, he marched against them with an army infinitely inferior to theirs, and rushing upon them in the night, obtained a complete victory. Narvaez was wounded, taken prisoner, and put in irons.

This victory proved the more acceptable, as it was gained with little bloodshed, only two soldiers being killed on the side of Cortes, and two officers, with fifteen private men, of the adverse faction. Cortes treated the vanquished not like enemies, but as countrymen and friends, and offered to send them back immediately to Cuba, or to take them into his service, as partners in his fortune, on equal terms with his own soldiers. The greater part of them accepted the offer, and vied with each other in professions of

fidelity and attachment to a general, whoſe recent ſucceſſes had given them ſuch a ſtriking proof of his abilities. Thus, by a ſeries of events no leſs fortunate than uncommon, Cortes not only eſcaped from the deſtruction that ſeemed inevitable, but, when he had leaſt reaſon to expect it, was placed at the head of a thouſand reſolute Spaniards.

While Cortes was engaged in this buſineſs, the Mexicans ſeized the opportunity of his abſence to take up arms, to which they had been more particularly urged by the cruelty and treachery of Alvarado, whom Cortes had left in the city, in order to take care of the royal priſoner, and keep the natives in awe.

On the 24th of June, 1520, Cortes marched back to the city, and took quiet poſſeſſion of his ancient ſtation. However, being too much elated with his ſucceſs, he neglected to viſit Montezuma, and embittered the inſult by expreſſions full of contempt for that unfortunate prince and his people. This being remoured about, they flew to arms in every quarter, and attacked the Spaniards in their fortifications. Though the artillery pointed againſt their numerous battalions, crowded together in narrow ſtreets, ſwept off multitudes at every diſcharge, though every blow of the Spaniſh weapons fell with

mortal

mortal effect upon their naked bodies, the violence of the affault by no means abated. Frefh men rufhed forward to occupy the places of the flain, and meeting with the fame fate, were fucceeded by others no lefs intrepid and eager for vengence. The utmoft efforts and abilities of Cortes, feconded by the difciplined valour of his troops, were hardly fufficient to defend the fortifications of the Spaniards, into which the Mexicans had nearly forced their way.

Cortes was now willing to try what effect the fight of the emperor would have upon his fubjects. He was accordingly brought on the ramparts, from whence he addreffed the Mexicans, exhorting them to peaceable meafures, which fo enraged them, that he was foon wounded by two arrows, and the blow of a ftone on his temples brought him to the ground. The Spaniards carried him to his apartments; but he was fo broken and dejected by the feverity of his fate, that he tore off the bandage from his wounds, and foon expired.

Soon after the death of Montezuma, Cortes found it abfolutely neceffary to abandon the city. He attempted his retreat by night, but the Mexicans, who had watched all his motions, fell upon him in his march, and deftroyed nearly

one

one half of his army. All the artillery, ammunition, and baggage, were loſt, and only a very ſmall portion of the treaſure they had amaſſed was ſaved. Many of the ſoldiers, having ſo overloaded themſelves with bars of gold as rendered them unfit for action, and retarded their flight, fell ignominiouſly the victims of their own inconſiderate avarice.

Cortes directed his march towards a riſing ground at ſome little diſtance, and having fortunately diſcovered a temple ſituated on an eminence, he took poſſeſſion of it. He there found not only the ſhelter for which he wiſhed, but, what was no leſs wanted, ſome proviſions to refreſh his men. On leaving this place, they marched for ſix days with little reſpite, and under continual alarms, numerous bodies of the Mexicans hovering around them, and haraſſing them in front, rear, and flank, with great boldneſs. As the barren country through which they paſſed afforded hardly any proviſions, they were reduced to feed on berries, roots, and the ſtalks of green maize; and, at the very time that famine was depreſſing their ſpirits and waſting their ſtrength, their ſituation required the moſt vigurous and unremitting exertions of courage and activity. Amidſt theſe complicated diſtreſſes, one circumſtance ſupported and animated the Spaniards,

niards. Their commander ſuſtained this ſad reverſe of fortune with unſhaken magnanimity. His preſence of mind never forſook him, his ſagacity foreſaw every event, and his vigilance provided for it. He was foremoſt in every danger, and endured every hardſhip with cheerfulneſs. His ſoldiers, though deſpairing themſelves, continued to follow him without reluctance.

On the ſixth day of their march, they reached the ſummit of an eminence, when a ſpacious walley opened to their view, covered with a vaſt army, extending as far as the eye could reach. The Mexicans, while with one body of their troops they haraſſed the Spaniards in their retreat, had aſſembled their principal force on the other ſide of the lake, and poſted it in the plain of Otumba, through which they knew Cortes muſt paſs. At the ſight of this incredible multitude, which they could ſurvey at once from the riſing ground, the Spaniards were aſtoniſhed, and even the boldeſt began to deſpair. Cortes, however, without allowing leiſure for their fears to acquire ſtrength by reflection, after reminding them, that nothing remained but to die or conquer, led them immediately to the charge. The Mexicans with unuſual fortitude, waited their approach; but ſuch was the ſuperiority

riority of the Spaniſh arms and diſcipline, that the impreſſion of this ſmall body was irreſiſtible, and whichever way its force was directed, it penetrated and diſperſed the moſt numerous battalions. However, while theſe gave way in one quarter, a freſh ſupply of enemies advanced from another, and the Spaniards, though ſucceſsful in every attack, were ready to ſink under theſe repeated efforts, without ſeeing any end of their toil, or any hope of victory.

Cortes now obſerved, that the great ſtandard of the empire, which was carried before the Mexican general, was advancing. He fortunately recollected to have heard, that on the fate of it depended the event of every battle. He therefore aſſembled a few of his braveſt officers, whoſe horſes were ſtill capable of ſervice, and placing himſelf at their head, puſhed forwards towards the ſtandard, with an impetuoſity that bore down every thing before it. A choſen body of nobles, who guarded the ſtandard, made ſome reſiſtance, but were ſoon vanquiſhed. Cortes, with a ſtroke of his lance, wounded the Mexican general, and threw him to the ground. One of the Spaniſh officers alighting, finiſhed his life, and ſeized the imperial ſtandard. The inſtant their leader fell, and their ſtandard, to which all directed their eyes, was no

longer to be ſeen, an univerſal panic ſtruck the Mexicans, every enſign was lowered, each ſoldier threw away his weapons, and every one made the beſt of his way to the mountains. The Spaniards, who were not in a condition to purſue them, contented themſelves with collecting the ſpoils of the field, which were ſo valuable, as to be ſome compenſation for the wealth they had loſt in the city of Mexico.

After this victory, Cortes diſpatched an officer of confidence with four Ships of Narvaez's to Hiſpaniola and Jamaica, to engage adventurers, and to purchaſe horſes, gunpowder, and other military ſtores. As he knew it would be in vain to attempt the reduction of Mexico, unleſs he could ſecure the command of the lake, he found means to procure materials for building twelve brigantines, ſo that they might be carried thither in pieces, ready to be put together, and launched, whenever he ſhould want them.

While he was haraſſed and perplexed with the mutinous diſpoſition of his troops, two ſhips arrived, with a ſupply of men and military ſtores, ſent by the governor of Cuba, not to aſſiſt Cortes, but with a view to complete his ruin. His addreſs, however, brought them over to his views. He now found his army reinforced with 180 Spaniards, and twenty horſes.

Soon

Soon after this four Ships arrived at Vera Cruz from Hispaniola, with two hundred soldiers, eigthy horses, and two battering cannon, and a considerable supply of ammunition and arms.

On the 28th of April, 1521, all the Spanish troops, together with the auxiliary Indians, were drawn up on the banks of the canal; and with extraordinary military pomp, heightened and rendered more solemn by the celebration of the most sacred rights of religion, the brigantines were launched. Cortez now determined on making an attack on the city of Mexico. The brigantines no sooner appeared before the city, than the lake was covered with innumerable canoes, which made but a feeble resistance against these vessels, manned by Europeans. The brigantines, with the utmost ease, broke through their feeble opponents, overset many canoes, and dissipated the whole armament with such slaughter, as convinced the Mexicans, that it was not in their power to contend with the Spaniards on the watery element.

Cortes now determined to attack the city, and for this purpose he made all the wise preparations an able general could do; but, owing to his orders not being properly observed, he was at last repulsed, received some dangerous wounds, and would have been taken by the Mexicans,

 had

had not ſome Spaniſh officers reſcued him at the expence of their lives. Forty Spaniards fell alive into the hands of the Mexicans, who ſacrificed thoſe unhappy victims, in the moſt cruel manner, to their god of war.

However unpromiſing an aſpect matters wore at preſent, Cortes had a mind that roſe above all difficulties. He ſoon found himſelf enabled to renew the attack on the city of Mexico, in which he proved ſo fortunate, that he took the emperor Guatimozin priſoner, who ſeemed worthy of a better fate. When the emperor was conducted to Cortes, he appeared neither with the ſullen fierceneſs of a barbarian, nor with the dejection of a ſupplicant. "I have done (ſaid he, addreſſing himſelf to the Spaniſh general) what became a monarch. I have defended my people to the laſt extremity. Nothing now remains but to die. Take this dagger, (laying his hand on one which Cortes wore) plant it in my breaſt, and put an end to a life, which can no longer be of uſe."

As ſoon as the fate of this unfortunate ſovereign was known, the Mexicans ceaſed all reſiſtance, and Cortes took poſſeſſion of that ſmall part of the capital, which had not been deſtroyed during the ſiege. Thus terminated the ſige of Mexico, the moſt memorable event in the conqueſt of

America.

America. It lafted twenty-five days, of which hardly one paffed without fome fingular effort on the part of the befiegers or the befieged. The great abilities of Guatimozin, the number of his troops, the peculiar fituation of his capital, fo far counterbalanced the fuperiority of the Spaniards in arms and difcipline, that they muft have relinquifhed the enterprize, had they trufted for fuccefs to themfelves alone; but Mexico was overturned by its own tyranny, and the jealoufy of its neighbours.

The Spaniards were no fooner mafters of the city, than they fet about feeking for the profufe riches they expected it would produce; but they were herein fadly difappointed. The foldiers could collect only an inconfiderable booty amidft ruins and defolation, and this difappointment excited them almoft to an open rebellion againft Cortes. Arguments, entreaties, and promifes, were employed in order to foothe them; but with fo little effect, that Cortes, with a view to check this growing fpirit of difcontent, gave way to a deed, which ftains the glory of all his great actions. The unhappy monarch, together with his chief favourite, were given up to be tortured, in order to force from them a difcovery of the royal treafures,

treaſures, which it was ſuppoſed they had concealed. Guatimozin bore whatever the refined cruelty of his tormentors could inflict with the invincible fortitude of an american warrior. His fellow ſufferer, ſinking under the violence of his anguiſh, turned his ſorrowful eyes towards his maſter, which ſeemed to implore his permiſſion to reveal all he knew; but the high-ſpirited prince, darting on him a look of authority, mingled with ſcorn, checked him by aſking, "Am I now repoſing on a bed of flowers?" His favorite felt the reproach, perſevered in his dutiful ſilence, and expired. Cortes was ſo much aſhamed of this horrid ſcene, that he reſcued the royal victim from the hands of his torturers, and thereby prolonged a life devoted to future miſeries.

The fate of the capital, as both parties had conjectured, decided that of the empire, and the provinces ſubmitted, one after another, to the conquerors. Cortes, being now more at leiſure, began to form ſchemes of diſcovery, and to complete the original plan of Columbus, by finding a paſſage to the Eaſt Indies by that quarter of the world they were then in; but he did not then know that this ſcheme had been undertaken and accompliſhed.

Ferdinand Magellan, a Portugueſe gentleman, on the 10th of Auguſt, 1519,

failed from Sevile with five Ships, and, after touching at the Canaries, ftood directly South along the coaft of America, and on the 12th of January, 1520, reached the river De la Plata. From hence he continued his courfe, after having conquered the mutinous difpofition of his crew, and at length difcovered, near the fifty-third degree of latitude, the mouth of a ftrait, into which he entered, in fpite of the murmurs and remonftrances of the people under his commend. After failing twenty days in that winding dangerous channel, to which he gave his own name, and where one of his fhips deferted him, the great Southern Ocean opened to his view, when he fhed tears of joy and gratitude for that happy difcovery.

After enduring inexpreffible hardfhips, from the want of provifions and other neceffaries, on the 6th of March, 1521, they fell in with a clufter of fmall but fertile iflands, which afforded them refrefhments in fuch abundance, that their health was foon re-eftablifhed. This extenfive fea Magellan called the *Pacific Ocean*, which name it ftill bears. He afterwards difcovered the Philippine iflands, and was there killed by the barbarous natives.

John Sebaftian del Cano profecuted the expedition after the death of Magellan. After vifiting many of the fmaller iflands, fcattered in the eaftern part of the Indian Ocean,

Ocean, they touched at the great iſland of Borneo, and at length landed in Tidore, one of the Moluccas. He followed the courſe of the Portugueſe by the Cape of Good Hope, and, after many diſaſters and ſufferings, he arrived at St. Lucar on the 7th of September, 1522, having ſailed round the globe in the ſpace of three years and twenty-eight days.

But let us return to the tranſactions in New Spain. At the time that Cortes was acquiring ſuch vaſt territories for his native country, and preparing the way for future conqueſts, it was his ſingular fate not only to be deſtitute of any commiſſion or authority from the ſovereign, whom he was ſerving with ſuch ſucceſsful zeal, but to be regarded as an undutiful and ſeditious ſubject. The court of Spain ſent a perſon to ſuperſede him, to ſeize his perſon, and confiſcate his effects; but Cortes triumphed over all his enemies, and was appointed Captain-General, and Governor of New-Spain.

The jealouſies and ingratitude of the court of Spain threw ſo many obſtacles in the way of Cortes, that his government became very uneaſy to him, and the court went ſo far as to ſend perſons to enquire into his conduct, and to bring him to juſtice, ſhould his intereſted judges find him guilty. He reſolved, however, not to expoſe himſelf to the ignominy of a trial,

a trial, in that country, which had been the ſcene of his triumphs; and, without waiting for the arrival of his judges, to repair directly to Caſtile, and commit himſelf and his cauſe to the juſtice and generoſity of the King.

The Emperor Charles, having now nothing to apprehend from the deſigns of Cortes, received him at Court like a perſon, whom conſcious innocence had brought into the preſence of his maſter, and who was entitled, by the eminence of his ſervices, to the higheſt marks of diſtinction and reſpect. The order of St. Jago, the title of Marquis del Valle de Guaxaca, and the grant of a vaſt territory in New Spain, were ſucceſſively beſtowed upon him.

Cortes returned to New Spain; but his power was ſo cramped, that he found himſelf in a very diſagreable ſituation. He formed ſchemes for new diſcoveries, explored California, and ſurveyed the greater part of the gulf which ſeparates it from New Spain. On his return to his government, he found himſelf ſurrounded with ſo many enemies, that he determined once more to ſeek for redreſs in his native country.

On his arrival in Old Spain, the Emperor behaved to him with cold civility, his miniſters treated him ſometimes with neglect, and ſometimes with inſolence.

His

His grievances received no redrefs, his claims were urged without effect, and feveral years paffed in fruitlefs applications to minifters and judges: an occupation the moft irkfome and mortifying to a man of fpirit. Cortes finifhed his mortal career on the fecond day of December, 1547, in the fixty-fecond year of his age, having experienced the fame fate with that of all the perfons who diftinguifhed themfelves in the difcovery or conqueft of the New World: envied by his cotemporaries, and ill requited by the courts he ferved, he has been admired and celebrated by fucceeding ages.

Remarkable Events recorded in this Chapter.

1518 Cortes is fent by Velafquez to conquer New Spain.

1519 Lands his troops in New Spain.
Deftroys his own fleet.
Sets out for Mexico with his little army.

1520 Montezuma acknowledges himfelf a vaffal of Spain.
Death of the Emperor Montezuma.

1521 The conqueft of all Mexico, followed by the taking of the city.
The Strait of Magellan difcovered.

1522 Cortes appointed Captain-general and Governor of New Spain.

1536 Cortes difcovers California.

1540 Returns home, and there dies.

CHAP. VI.

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THE discovery of the Southern Ocean by Balboa excited a ſpirit of adventure in the colonies of Darien and Panama, who ſighed after the imaginary wealth of thoſe unknown regions. Several armaments were fitted out in 1523, in order to explore and take poſſeſſion of the countries to the Eaſt ol Panama, but under the conduct of leaders, whoſe talents and reſources were unequal to the attempt. They proved unſucceſsful, and thereby damped the ardour of others.

Three perſons ſettled in Panama, whoſe names were Franciſco Pizarro, Diego de Almagro, and Hernando Luque; reſolved to attempt the diſcovery of Peru, notwithſtanding the ill ſucceſs of former adventurers. Theſe three men were deſtined to overturn one of the moſt extenſive empires on the face of the earth; though Pizarro was a baſtard, with very little education; Almagro, a foundling; and Luque, a prieſt and ſchoolmaſter at Panama.

Each engaged to employ his whole fortune in this adventure. Pizarro, being the pooreſt of the three, undertook the department of the greateſt fatigue and danger, and to command in perſon the armament

deſtined for the diſcovery. Almagro was to conduct the ſupplies of proviſions and reinforcements of troops, of which Pizarro might ſtand in need. Luque was to remain at Panama to negociate with the governor, and ſuperintend whatever was carrying on for the general good. As the ſpirit of enthuſiaſm uniformly accompanied that of adventure in the New World, and by that ſtrange union both acquired an encreaſe of force, this confederacy, formed by ambition and avarice, was confirmed by the moſt ſolemn act of religion. Luque celebrated maſs, divided a conſecrated hoſt into three, and reſerving one part to himſelf, gave the other two to his aſſociates, of which they partook, and thus, in the name of the Prince of Peace, ratified a contract, of which plunder and bloodſhed were the principal objects in view.

On the 14th of November, 1525, Pizarro ſet ſail from Panama with a ſingle veſſel, of ſmall burthen, and 112 men. His voyage, however, was attended with great difficulties and hardſhips. After remaining five months in the iſland of Gorgona, noted for the moſt unhealthy climate in that region of America, a veſſel arrived from Panama. This tranſported them with ſuch joy, that all their former ſufferings were forgotten. Their hopes revived,

revived, and Pizarro found little difficulty to induce not only his own followers, but alſo the crew of the veſſel from Panama, to reſume his former ſcheme with no leſs ardour. Inſtead of returning to Panama, they ſtood towards the South-eaſt, and, more fortunate in this than in any of their paſt efforts, on the twentieth day after departure from Gorgona, they diſcovered the coaſt of Peru.

After touching at ſeveral villages on the coaſt, they landed at Tumbez, a place of ſome note, about three degrees ſouth of the line, diſtinguiſhed for its ſtately temple, and a palace of the Incas, or ſovereigns of the country. There the Spaniards feaſted their eyes with the firſt view of the opulence and civilization of the Peruvian empire. They beheld a country fully peopled, and cultivated with an appearance of regular induſtry; the natives decently cloathed, and poſſeſſed of ingenuity ſo far ſurpaſſing the other inhabitants of the New World, as to have the uſe of tame and domeſtic animals. But what chiefly attracted their notice, was ſuch a ſhow of gold and ſilver, not only in the ornaments of their perſons and temples, but in ſeveral veſſels and utenſils for common uſe, formed of thoſe precious metals, as left no room to doubt that they abounded with profuſion in the country. Pizarro and his companions

now seemed to have attained the completion of their most sanguine hopes, and fancied that all their wishes and dreams of rich domains, and inexhaustible treasures, would soon be realized.

Pizarro, having explored the country as far as it was necessary to ascertain the importance of the discovery, procured from the inhabitants some of their *Llamas*, or tame cattle, to which the Spaniards gave the name of sheep; some vessels of gold and silver, as well as some specimens of their other works of ingenuity; and two young men, whom he proposed to instruct in the Castilian language, that they might serve as interpreters in the expedition he meditated. With these he arrived at Panama, towards the close of the third year from the time of his departure thence. No adventurer of the age suffered hardships or encountered dangers, which equal those to which he was exposed during this long period.

On their arrival at Panama, Pizarro could not prevail on the governor to assist him in the conquest of Peru; his associates therefore sent him to Spain to negociate, where he managed matters more to his own interest than to theirs. On the 26th of July, 1528, Pizarro was appointed governor, captain-general, and adelantado

of

of the countries he had difcovered, and hoped to conquer, with fupreme authority, civil as well as military: thus he fecured to himfelf whatever his boundlefs ambition could defire.

After all the efforts of Pizarro and his affociates, three fmall veffels, with 180 foldiers, 36 of whom were horfemen, compofed the whole of the armament. With this contemptible force, in February, 1531, Pizarro did not hefitate to fail to invade a great empire.

He no fooner landed in Peru, than he began hoftilities, by which imprudent conduct his followers were expofed to famine, fatigue, and difeafes of various kinds. However, they at length reached the province of Coaque; and having furprized the principal fettlement of the natives, they feized there, veffels and ornaments of gold and filver to the amount of thirty thoufand pefos, with other booty of fuch value, as difpelled all their fears, and infpired the moft defponding with fanguine hopes.

The dominions of the fovereigns of Peru, at the time that the Spaniards invaded them, extended in length, from north to fouth, above fifteen hundred miles along the Pacific Ocean. Its breadth, from eaft to weft, was much lefs confiderable, being uniformly bounded by the

vaſt ridge of the Andes, ſtretching from its one extremity to the other.

Pizarro, ſoon after his landing in Peru, diſcovered that a civil war was carrying on in that country. By theſe means he was permitted to purſue his operations unmoleſted, and advanced to the centre of a great empire, before one effort of its power was exerted to ſtop his career. The firſt complete information the Spaniards received of this war, was by meſſengers from Huaſcar, one of the contending parties, ſent to Pizarro, in order to ſolicit his aid againſt his opponent Atahualpa. Pizarro at once perceived the importance of this intelligence, and foreſaw ſo clearly all the advantages, which might be derived from this divided ſtate of the kingdom he had invaded, that, without waiting for the reinforcements he expected from Panama, he determined to puſh forward, while inteſtine diſcord put it out of the power of the Peruvians to attack him with their whole force, and while by taking part, as circumſtances ſhould incline him, with one of the competitors, he might be enabled with greater eaſe to cruſh them both.

Strange as it may appear, Pizarro marched into the heart of the country attended by his followers, conſiſting only of 62 horſemen, and 102 foot ſoldiers, of whom

whom twenty were armed with crofs-bows, and three with mufkets. Pizarro, in the coufe of his march, received an embaffador from the inca of Caramalca, who brought him very valuable prefents from that prince, accompanied with a proffer of his alliance. Pizarro, according to the ufual artifice of his countrymen in America, promifed every thing, without meaning to fulful any thing but what his intereft directed. In confequence of thefe declarations, the Spaniards were permitted to march where they pleafed.

On entering Caxamalca, Pizarro took poffeffion of a large court, on each fide of which was a houfe, which the Spanifh hiftorians calls a palace of the Inca, and on the other a temple of the Sun, the whole furrounded with a ftrong rampart or wall of earth. When he had pofted his troops in this advantageous fituation, and had feen what profufion of riches the Inca poffeffed, Pizarro treacheroufly feized on his perfon, during the interview to which the monarch had invited him. While the Inca was engaged in conference with the Spaniards, Pizarro gave the fignal of affault. At once the martial mufick ftruck up, the cannon and mufkets began to fire, the horfe fallied out fiercely to the charge, and the infantry rufhed on fword in hand. The Peruvians, aftonifhed

at the ſuddenneſs of an attack which they did not expect, and diſmayed with the deſtructive effects of the fire-arms, and the irreſiſtable impreſſion of the cavalry, fled with univerſal conſternation in every quarter, without attempting either to annoy the enemy, or to defend themſelves. Pizarro, at the head of his followers, advanced directly towards the Inca; and, though his nobles crowded around him with officious zeal, and fell in numbers at his feet, while they vied one with another in ſacrificing their own lives, that they might cover the ſacred perſon of their king, the Spaniards ſoon penetrated to the royal ſeat, and Pizarro, ſeizing the Inca by the arm, dragged him to the ground, and carried him as a priſoner to his quarters. The fate of the monarch precipitated the flight of his followers. The Spaniards every where purſued them, and with a deliberate and unrelenting barbarity, continued to ſlaughter the wretched Peruvians, who never attempted to reſiſt. The carnage did not ceaſe till the cloſe of the day put an end to it, when above four thouſand Peruvians lay dead on the ſpot. Not a ſingle Spaniard fell, nor was any one wounded but Pizarro himſelf, whoſe hand was ſlightly hurt.

The plunder the Spaniards acquired on this maſſacre, was far beyond every thing they

they had formed in their minds of the wealth of Peru, and they were ſo tranſported with the value of the acquiſition, as well as the greatneſs of their ſucceſs, that they paſſed the night in thoſe extravagant exultations natural to indigent adventurers on ſo ſudden a change in their affairs.

The captive monarch could at firſt hardly believe what he ſaw to be real, and the dejection into which he ſunk was in proportion to the height of grandeur from which he had fallen. However, the Inca ſoon diſcovered the ruling paſſion of the Spaniards, and by applying to that, made an attempt to recover his liberty. He offered as a ranſom what aſtoniſhed the Spaniards, even after all they now knew concerning the opulence of his kingdom. The apartment in which he was confined was twenty-two feet in length, and ſixteen in breadth; he undertook to fill it with veſſels of gold as high as he could reach. Pizarro eagerly cloſed with this tempting propoſal, and a line was drawn upon the wall of the chamber, to mark the ſtipulated height to which the treaſure was to reach.

As faſt as the gold was brought in, it was melted down, except ſome pieces of curious fabric, which were reſerved as a preſent for the emperor. After ſetting apart

apart the fifth due to the crown, and a hundred thousand pesos as a donative to the soldiers, who were just arrived with Almagro, there remained 1,528,500 pesos to Pizarro and his followers. The festival of St. James, (July 25, 1513) the patron saint of Spain, was the day chosen for the partition of this vast sum. Though assembled to divide the spoils of an innocent people, procured by deceit, extortion, and cruelty, the transaction began with a solemn invocation of the name of God, as if they could have expected the guidance of heaven in distributing those wages of iniquity. In this division, about 8000 pesos, at that time not inferior in effective value to as many pounds sterling of the present century, fell to the share of each horseman, and half that sum to each foot soldier. Pizarro and his officers received their dividends in proportion to their superior station.

The Inca having thus fulfilled his engagement, demanded his release; but the treachery of the Spaniards induced them, instead of setting him at liberty, to put a period to his life. He was tried, and condemned to be burnt alive. At last, the unfortunate prince consented to receive baptism, and was therefore indulged with being strangled at the stake.

Pizarro,

Pizarro, having by these cruel proceedings established his authority in Caxamalca, no longer hesitated to advance towards Cuzco; and, having received considerable reinforcements, he could venture, with little danger, to penetrate into the interior part of the country. The Peruvians had assembled some large bodies of troops to oppose his progress, and several fierce encounters happened; but they terminated like all the actions in America: a few Spaniards were killed or wounded, and the natives were put to flight with incredible slaughter. At length Pizarro forced his way to Cuzco, and took quiet possession of the capital. The riches found there, even after all the natives had carried off and concealed, either from a superstitious veneration for the ornaments of their temples, or out of hatred to their rapacious conquerors, exceeded in value what had been received as the Inca's ransom. However, as Pizarro's forces were now more numerous, the common soldiers did not receive so much as they expected, which proved a disappointment to their rapacity.

After all these conquests, Pizarro set out for his native country, and arrived in Spain in 1534. The immense quantities of gold and silver which he imported, filled the kingdom with astonishment.

Pizarro

Pizarro was received by the Emperor with the attention due to the bearer of a prefent fo rich, as to exceed any idea the Spaniards had formed concerning the value of their acquifitions in America, even after they had been ten years mafters of Mexico. Pizarro was admitted into the order of St. Jago, and, after getting his authority confirmed with new powers and privileges, he fet out on his return to Peru, accompanied by many perfons of higher rank than had yet ferved in that country. Almagro received the honours he had fo long defired: the title of Adelantado, or governor, was conferred upon him, with jurifdiction over two hundred leagues of country, ftretching beyond the fouthern limits of the province allotted to Pizarro.

On his arrival at Peru, he found Almagro in arms oppofing his intereft, and endeavouring to do himfelf juftice for the treacherous conduct of Pizarro, who had engroffed to himfelf all the honours and emoluments, which ought to have been divided with his affociate. However, matters were foon accommodated between them. Their new agreement was confirmed with the fame facred folemnities as the firft, and obferved with as little fidelity.

Cuzco, the capital city of the Incas, was fituated in a corner of the empire, above

above four hundred miles from the ſea, and much further from Quito, a province of whoſe value he had formed an high idea. No other ſettlement of the Peruvians was ſo conſiderable as to merit the name of a town, or to allure the Spaniards to fix their reſidence in it. Pizarro, in marching through the country, had been ſtruck with the beauty and fertility of the valley of Rimac, one of the moſt extenſive and beſt cultivated in Peru. There, on the banks of a ſmall river, of the ſame name with the vale which it waters and enriches, at the diſtance of ſix miles from Callao, the moſt commodious harbour in the Pacific Ocean, he founded a city, which he deſtined to be the capital of his government. On the 18th of January, 1535, he gave it the name of Cindad de los Reyes, either from the circumſtance of having laid the firſt ſtone, at that ſeaſon when the church celebrates the feſtival of the Three Kings, or, as is more probable, in honour of Juana and Charles, the ſovereigns of Caſtile. This name it ſtill retains among the Spaniards in all legal and formal deeds, but it is better known to foreigners by that of *Lima*, a corruption of the ancient appellation of the valley in which it is ſituated. Under his inſpection, the buildings advanced with ſuch rapidity, that it ſoon

aſſumed the form of a city, which, by a magnificent palace that he erected for himſelf, and by the ſtately houſes built by ſeveral of his officers, gave a ſtrong proof of the grandeur it was at laſt to acquire.

Almagro, as agreed on between him and Pizarro, ſet out for Chili; but on his march, he met with ſo many hardſhips and difficulties, that many of his men died with fatigue. They no ſooner entered on the fertile plains of Chili, than they met with new difficulties to encounter. They there found a race of men very different from the people of Peru, intrepid, hardy, independant, and in their bodily conſtitution, as well as vigour of ſpirit, nearly reſembling the warlike tribes in North America. Though filled with wonder at the firſt appearance of the Spaniards, and ſtill more aſtoniſhed at the operation of their cavalry, and the effects of their fire-arms, the Chileſe ſoon recovered ſo far from their ſurprize, as not only to defend themſelves with obſtinacy, but to attack their new enemies with more determined fierceneſs than any American nation had hitherto diſcovered. The Spaniards, however, continued to penetrate into the country, and collected ſome conſiderable quantities of gold, when they were recalled to Peru by an unexpected event.

The

The Inca of Peru, having obſerved the inconſiderate ſecurity of the Spaniards in diſperſing their troops, and that only a handful of ſoldiers remained in Cuzco, thought that the happy period was at length come for vindicating his own rights, for avenging the wrongs of his country, and extirpating its oppreſſors. The Inca, who was the priſoner of Pizarro, obtained permiſſion from him to attend a great feſtival, which was to be celebrated a few leagues from the capital. Under pretext of that ſolemnity, the great men of the empire were aſſembled. As ſoon as the Inca joined them, the ſtandard of war was erected, and, in a ſhort time, all the fighting men, from the confines of Quito to the frontiers of Chili, were in arms. Many Spaniards, living ſecurely on the ſettlements allotted them, were maſſacred. Several detachments, as they marched careleſsly through a country which ſeemed to be tamely ſubmiſſive to their dominion, were cut off to a man. The Spaniſh writers aſſert, that the Peruvian army amounted to 200,000 men, and with this powerful army, and their Inca at the head of it, they laid ſiege to Cuzco. During nine months they carried on the ſiege with inceſſant ardour, and in various forms. The Inca, in ſpite of the valour of the Spaniards, recovered poſſeſ-

ſion of one half of his capital; and, in their various efforts to drive him out of it, Pizarro loſt one of his brothers, and ſome other perſons of note.

Almagro arrived at Cuzco in a critical moment. The Inca at firſt endeavoured to gain the friendſhip of Almagro; but after many fruitleſs overtures, deſpairing of any cordial union with a Spaniard, he attacked him by ſurprize with a numerous body of choſen troops. However, the Spaniſh diſcipline and valour maintained their uſual ſuperiority. The Peruvians were repulſed with ſuch ſlaughter, that a great part of their army diſperſed, and Almagro proceeded to the gates of Cuzco without oppoſition.

The Spaniards had no ſooner got rid of their Peruvian enemies, than they began to quarrel among themſelves, and the flame at laſt burſt out into a civil war. Though countrymen and friends, the ſubjects of the ſame ſovereign, each with the royal ſtandard diſplayed; and though they beheld the mountains that ſurrounded the plain in which they were drawn up, covered with a vaſt multitude of Indians, aſſembled to enjoy the ſpectacle of their mutual carnage, and prepared to attack whatever party remained maſter of the field; ſo fell and implacable was the rancour which had taken poſſeſſion of every breaſt,

breaſt, that not one pacific council, not a ſingle overture towards accommodation, proceeded from either ſide. Almagro was defeated and taken, tried by the Pizarros as guilty of treaſon, and condemned and executed, in 1538.

However rapid the progreſs of the Spaniards had been in South America ſince Pizarro landed in Peru, their avidity of dominion was not yet ſatisfied. The officers to whom Ferdinand Pizarro gave the command of different detachments, penetrated into ſeveral new provinces, and though ſome of them were expoſed to great hardſhips in the cold and barren regions of the Andes, and others ſuffered diſtreſs not inferior amidſt the woods and marſhes of the plains, they made diſcoveries and conqueſts which not only extended their knowledge of the country, but added conſiderably to the territories of Spain in the New World. Pedro de Valdivia reaſſumed Amagro's ſcheme of invading Chili, and notwithſtanding the fortitude of the natives in defending their poſſeſſions, made ſuch progreſs in the conqueſt of the country, that he founded the city of St. Jago, and gave a beginning to the eſtabliſhment of the Spaniſh dominions in that province.

Gonzalo Pizarro, whom his brother Franciſco had made governor of Quito,

had entrufted one of his confidential officers, named Orellana, with an expedition on difcoveries, appointing a proper place where they were to meet; but this young officer began to fancy himfelf independent, and, tranfported with the predominant paffion of the age, formed fchemes of diftinguifhing himfelf as a difcoverer, and treacheroufly abandoned his friend and employer.

It is impoffible to defcribe the confternation of Pizarro, when he did not find the bark at the confluence of the Napo and Maragnon, where he had ordered Orellana to wait for him; but that treacherous fervant, after having made fome difcoveries, got back to Spain, and there magnified his wonderful exploits. In the mean time, Pizarro was twelve hundred miles from Quito; and, in that long march back to their capital, the Spaniards encountered hardfhips greater than thofe they had endured in their progrefs outward, without the alluring hopes that then foothed and animated them under their fufferings. Hunger compelled them to feed on roots and berries, to eat all their dogs and horfes, to devour the moft loathfome reptiles, and even to knaw the leather of their faddles and fword belts. Four thoufand Indians, and two hundred and ten Spaniards perifhed in this wild

and

and disasterous expedition, which continued near two years. Those that got back to Quito were naked like savages, and so emaciated with famine, or worn out with fatigue, that they had more the appearance of spectres than men.

Gonzalo Pizarro was not much more happy on his arrival at his government of Quito, where he found every thing in a state little short of open rebellion against his brother Francisco. The young Almagro, after the execution of his father, never lost sight of taking revenge of Pizarro. He possessed all the qualities which captivate the affection of soldiers; he was of a graceful appearance, dexterous at all martial excercises, bold, open and generous, he seemed to be formed for command; and as his father, conscious of his own inferiority from the total want of education, had been extremely attentive to have him instructed in every science becoming a gentleman, the accomplishments he had acquired heightened the respect of his followers, as they gave him distinction and eminence among illiterate adventurers. In this young man the Almagrians found a point of union which they wanted, and looking up to him as their head, were ready to undertake any thing to promote his interest. Their affection for Almagro was not the only incitement,

citement, being urged on by their own diftreffes. Many of them, deftitute of common neceffaries, and weary of loitering away life a burden to their chief, or to fuch of their affociates as had faved fome remnant of their fortune from pillage and confifcation, fighed for an occafion to exert their activity and courage, and began to deliberate how they might be avenged on the author of all their mifery. Juan de Harrada, an officer of great abilities, who had the charge of Almagro's education, took the direction of their confultations, with all the zeal which this connection infpired, and with all the authority which the afcendency that he was known to have over the mind of his pupil gave him.

On Sunday, the 6th of June, 1541, at midnight, the feafon of tranquillity and repofe in all fultry climates, Harrada, at the head of eighteen of the moft determined confpirators, fallied out of Almagro's houfe in complete armour, and drawing their fwords, haftily advanced towards the governor's houfe. Their affociates, warned of their motions by a fignal, were in arms at different ftations to fupport them. Though Pizarro was ufually furrounded by fuch a numerous train of attendants, as fuited the magnificence of the moft opulent fubject of the age in which he lived,

lived, yet he was juſt riſen from table, and moſt of his domeſtics had retired to their own apartments, ſo that the conſpirators paſſed through the two outward courts of the palace unobſerved. They were at the bottom of the ſtaircaſe, before a page in waiting could give the alarm to his maſter, who was converſing with a few friends in a large hall. The governor, whoſe ſteady mind no form of danger could alter, ſtarting up, called for arms, and commanded Franciſco de Chaves to make faſt the door; but that officer, who did not retain ſo much preſence of mind as to obey this prudent order, running to the top of the ſtaircaſe, wildly aſked the conſpirators what they meant, and whither they were going. Inſtead of anſwering, they ſtabbed him to the heart, and burſt into the hall. Some of the perſons who were there threw themſelves from the windows, others attempted to fly, and a few, drawing their ſwords, followed their leader into an inner apartment. The conſpirators, animated with having the object of their vengeance now in view, ruſhed forward after them. Pizarro, with no other arms than his ſword and buckler, defended the entry, and ſupported by his half brother Alcantara, and his little knot of friends, he maintained the unequal conteſt with intrepidity worthy of his paſt exploits,

exploits, and with the vigour of a youthful combatant, "Courage, (cried he) companions, we are yet enow to make thoſe traitors repent of their audacity." But the armour of the conſpirators protected them, while every thruſt they made took effect. Alcantara fell dead at his brother's feet, and his other defenders were mortally wounded. The governor, unable any longer to parry the many weapons furiouſly aimed at him, received a deadly thruſt full in his throat, ſunk to the ground, and expired.

As ſoon as Pizarro was killed, the aſſaſſins ran out into the ſtreets, and waving their bloody ſwords, proclaimed the death of the tyrant. About two hundred of their aſſociates having joined them, they conducted young Almagro in ſolemn proceſſion through the city, and aſſembling the magiſtrates and principal citizens, compelled them to acknowledge him as lawful ſucceſſor to his father in his government.

Matters were not properly ſettled, when the arrival of Vaco de Caſtro, who aſſumed the title of governor, threw every thing again into freſh confuſion. Caſtro and Almagro both took the field. The former, knowing his ſtrength to be far ſuperior to that of the enemy, he was impatient to determine the conteſt by a battle. Nor

did

P. 141.

Pizarro assassinated in his Palace.

did the followers of Almagro, who had no hopes of obtaining a pardon for a crime ſo atrocious as the murder of the governor, decline that mode of deciſion.

On the 16th of September, 1542, they met at Chupaz, about two hundred miles from Cuzco, and fought with all the fierce animoſity inſpired by the violence of civil rage, the rancour of private enmity, the eagerneſs of revenge, and the laſt efforts of deſpair. Victory, after remaining long doubtful, declared at laſt for Vaco de Caſtro. The carnage was great in proportion to the number of combatants. Of fourteen hundred men, the total amount of the armies on both ſides, five hundred lay dead on the field, and the number of the wounded was ſtill greater. Of the priſoners, Caſtro condemned ſome to death, others were baniſhed Peru, and Almagro being taken, was publickly beheaded.

The feelings of the emperor were exceedingly hurt at the recital of ſo many actions ſhocking to humanity. He perceived, that relieving the Indians from oppreſſion was but one ſtep towards rendering his poſſeſſions in the New World a valuable acquiſition, and would be of little avail, unleſs he could circumſcribe the power and uſurpations of his own ſubjects there. With this view, he formed a body

a body of laws, containing many falutary appointments with refpect to the conftitution and powers of the fupreme council of the Indies; concerning the ftation and jurifdiction of the royal audiences in different parts of America; and the order of government, both ecclefiaftical and civil.

Notwithftanding thefe regulations, Peru was haftening to the higheft pitch of anarchy and confufion. Caftro however, by his wife and prudent meafures, for fome time averted the ftorm. A viceroy was fent over by the emperor, and, foon afer his arrival in Peru, he was firft imprifoned, and, after obtaining his liberty, and raifing an army to fupport his authority, was flain in battle. In this critical fituation, the emperor fent over Pedro de la Gafca as prefident of Peru, who, by his moderation and good management, might have done great things, had not Gonzalo Pizarro, fupported by a ftrong party, affumed the government of Peru. Gafca, perceiving that force muft be employed in order to accomplifh the purpofe of his miffion, collected troops in all quarters.

On the 9th of April, 1548, as the two parties moved forward to the charge, they exhibited a very fingular appearance. In that of Pizarro, compofed of men enriched with

with the ſpoils of the moſt opulent country in America, every officer, and almoſt all the private men, were clothed in ſtuffs of ſilk or brocade, embroidered with gold and ſilver; and their horſes, their arms, their ſtandards, were adorned with all the pride of military pomp. That of Gaſca, though not ſo ſplendid, exhibited what was no leſs ſtriking. He himſelf, accompanied by the archbiſhip of Lima, the biſhops of Quito and Cuzco, and a great number of eccleſiaſtics, marching along the lines, bleſſed the men, and encouraged them to a reſolute diſcharge of their duty, which could not fail that day of reſtoring Peru to peace and tranquility.

When both armies were juſt ready to engage, ſeveral of Pizarro's principal officers ſet ſpurs to their horſes, and went over to Gaſca, and many others ſilently ſlipped away. Pizarro, ſeeing all irretrievably loſt, cried out in amazement to a few officers, who ſtill faithfully adhered to him, "What remains for us to do?" —"Let us ruſh (replied one of them) upon the enemy's firmeſt battalion, and die like Romans." Pizarro, dejected with ſuch a reverſe of fortune, had not ſpirit to follow this ſoldierly counſel, and, with a tameneſs diſgraceful to his former fame, he ſurrendered to one of Gaſca's officers. Gaſca, happy in this bloodleſs victory,

 did

did not ſtain it with cruelty. Pizarro, and a ſmall number of the moſt diſtinguiſhed or notorious offenders, were capitally puniſhed. Pizarro was beheaded on the day after he ſurrendered. He ſubmitted to his fate with a compoſed dignity, and ſeemed deſirous to atone by repentance for the crimes he had committed.

Pizarro was no ſooner dead, than the malcontents in every quarter of Peru laid down their arms, and tranquillity was ſoon reſtored. Gaſca then endeavoured to find employment for the mutinous ſoldiers who had laid down their arms, which he did by engaging them in the conqueſt of Chili. In order to reward his own ſoldiers, he made a diviſion of the country among them, without reſerving the ſmalleſt portion to himſelf.

Gaſca, having now accompliſhed every object of his miſſion, and longing to return again to a private ſtation, committed the government of Peru to the court of audience, and ſet out for Spain on the firſt of February, 1550.

There had been no remittance of the the royal revenue for four years, owing to the diſtracted ſtate of the country. Gaſca, however, on his return to Spain, carried with him 1,300,000 peſos of public money, which the prudence and good order of adminiſtration enabled him to

ſave,

ſave, after paying all the expences of the war. He was received in his native country with univerſal admiration and eſteem for his abilities and his virtues, both which were highly conſpicuous. Without army or fleet, or public funds; with a train ſo ſimple, that only three thouſand ducats were expended in equipping him, he ſet out to oppoſe a formidable rebellion. But the praiſe beſtowed on his abilities were exceeded by that which his virtues merited. After reſiding in a country where wealth preſented allurements, which had ſeduced every perſon who had hitherto poſſeſſed power there, he retired from the trying ſtation with integrity, not only untainted but unſuſpected. After diſtributing among his countrymen poſſeſſions of greater extent and value than had ever been in the diſpoſal of a ſubject in any age or nation, he himſelf remained in his original ſtate of poverty; and at the very time, when he brought ſuch a large recruit to the royal treaſury, he was obliged to apply by petition for a ſmall ſum to diſcharge ſome petty debts, which he had contracted during the courſe of his ſervices. Charles was not inſenſible to ſuch diſintereſted merit. Gaſca was received by him with the moſt diſtinguiſhed marks of eſteem, and being promoted to the biſhopric of Palencia, he paſſed the remainder of his

days in the tranquillity of retirement, reſpected by his country, honoured by his ſovereign, and beloved by all.

Memorable Events recorded in this Chapter.

1526 Pizarro diſcovers Peru.
1528 He is appointed governor of the newly-diſcovered countries.
1532 Maſſacre of the Peruvians by the Spaniards.
1533 The Inca of Caxamalca tried, condemned, and executed.
1534 Pizarro arrives in Spain.
1535 On his return to Peru, he builds Lima.
Chili invaded by Almagro.
1536 Siege of Cuzco.
1538 Almagro tried, condemned, and executed.
1541 Pizarro aſſaſſinated in his palace.
1546 Pedro de la Gaſca appointed Preſident of Peru.
1548 He ſuppreſſes the rebellion in Peru.
1550 Returns to Spain, and is made Biſhop of Palencia.

CONCLUSION.

HAVING now taken a review of the conquest of the two great empires of Mexico and Peru, very little more seems worthy of notice in the History of South America, than to mention a few circumstances relative to their political institutions and national manners.

According to the account of the Mexicans themselves, their empire was not of long continuance. They relate, that their country was originally possessed, rather than peopled, by small independent tribes, whose manners and mode of life resembled those of the rudest savages in South America. About a period corresponding to the beginning of the tenth century in the Christian æra, several tribes moved in successive migrations from unknown regions towards the north and north-west, and settled in different provinces of Anahuac, the ancient name of New Spain. These, more civilized than the original inhabitants, began to form them to the arts of social life. At length, towards the commencement of the thirteenth century, the Mexicans, a people more polished than any of the former, advanced from the borders of the Californian gulf, and took possession of the plains adjacent to a great lake near the centre of the country. After residing there about fifty years they founded a town, since distinguished by the name of *Mexico*, which from humble beginnings soon grew to be the most considerable city in the New World. The Mexicans, long after they were established in their new possessions, continued, like other martial tribes in America, unacquainted with regal

dominion; and were governed in peace, and conducted in war, by ſuch as were entitled to pre-eminence by their wiſdom or their valour. Among them, as in other ſtates, whoſe power and territories become extenſive, the ſupreme authority centered at laſt in a ſingle perſon; and when the Spaniards under Cortes invaded the country, Montezuma was the ninth monarch in order, who had ſwayed the Mexican ſceptre, not by hereditary right, but by election. Such is the traditional tale of the Mexicans concerning the progreſs of their own empire, which, according to this account, muſt have been but of ſhort duration.

While the juriſdiction of the Mexican monarchs was limited, it is probable that much oſtentation was not exerciſed; but as their authority became more extenſive, the ſplendour of their government encreaſed. It was in this laſt ſtate the Spaniards beheld it, and ſtruck with the appearance of Montezuma's court, they deſcribe its pomp at great length, and with much admiration. The number of his attendants, the order, the ſilence, and the reverence with which they ſerved him; the vaſt extent of his royal manſion, the variety of apartments allotted to different officers, and the oſtentation with which his grandeur was diſplayed whenever he permitted his ſubjects to behold him, ſeem to reſemble the magnificence of the ancient monarchies in Aſia, rather than the ſimplicity of the infant ſtates in the New World.

The Mexicans, like the rude tribes among them, were inceſſantly engaged in war, and the motives that prompted them to hoſtilities

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ſeem to have been the ſame. They fought in order to gratify their vengeance, by ſhedding the blood of their enemies. In battle, they were chiefly intent on taking priſoners, and it was by the number of theſe that they eſtimated the glory of victory. No captives were ever ranſomed or ſpared: all were ſacrificed without mercy, and their fleſh devoured with the ſame barbarous joy as among the fierceſt ſavages. On ſome occaſions, it roſe to even wilder exceſſes. Their principal warriors covered themſelves with the ſkins of the unhappy victims, and danced about the ſtreets, boaſting of their own valour, and exulting over their enemies.

Their funeral rites were no leſs bloody than thoſe of the moſt ſavage tribes. On the death of any diſtinguiſhed perſonage, eſpecially of the emperor, ſeveral of his attendants were choſen to accompany him to the other world, and theſe unfortunate victims were put to death without mercy, and buried in the ſame tomb.

Though the agriculture of the Mexicans was more extenſive than that of the roving tribes, who truſted chiefly to their bow for food, it ſeems not to have ſupplied them with ſuch ſubſiſtence as men require when engaged in efforts of active induſtry. The Spaniards appear not to have been ſtruck with any ſuperiority of the Mexicans over the other people of America in bodily vigour. Both, according to their obſervation, were of ſuch a feeble frame as to be unable to endure fatigue, and the ſtrength of one Spaniard exceeded that of ſeveral Indians. This they imputed to their ſcanty diet, on poor fare, ſufficient to preſerve life, but not to give firmneſs to the conſtitution.

In

In Mexico, though the disposition of the houses was somewhat orderly, yet the structure of the greater part of them was mean. Nor does the fabric of their temples, and other public edifices, appear to have been such as entitled them to the high praises bestowed upon them by many Spanish authors. The great temple of Mexico, the most famous in New Spain, which has been represented as a magnificent building, raised to such a height, that the ascent to it was by a staircase of an hundred and fourteen steps, was a solid mass of earth of a square form, faced partly with stone. Its base on each side extended ninety feet, and decreasing gradually as it advanced in height, it terminated in a quadrangle of about thirty feet, where were placed a shrine of the deity, and two altars on which the victims were sacrificed. Greater skill and ingenuity were displayed, if we may believe the Spanish historians, in the houses of the emperor, and in those of the principal nobility. There some elegance of design was visible, and a commodious arrangement of the apartments was attended to; but if buildings corresponding to such descriptions had ever existed in the Mexican cities, it is probable that some remains of them would still be visible. As only two centuries and a half have elapsed since the conquest of New Spain, it seems altogether incredible, that in a period so short every vestige of this boasted elegance and grandeur should have disappeared.

The Mexicans have been represented, perhaps, more barbarous than they really were; their religious tenets, and the rites of their worship, are described as wild and cruel in an extreme degree. The aspect of superstition in

Mexico was gloomy and frightful; its divinities were cloathed with terror, and delighted in vengeance. They were exhibited to the people under deteſtable forms, which created horror. The figures of ſerpents, tygers, and other deſtructive animals, decorated their temples. Feaſts, mortifications, and penances, all rigid, and many of them excruciating to an extreme degree, were the means employed to appeaſe the wrath of their gods, and the Mexicans never approached their altars without ſprinkling them with blood drawn from their own bodies; but of all offerings, human ſacrifices were deemed the moſt acceptable.

The empire of *Peru* boaſts of an higher antiquity than that of Mexico. According to the traditionary accounts collected by the Spaniards, it had ſubſiſted four hundred years under twelve ſucceſſive monarchs; but the knowledge of their ancient ſtory, which the Peruvians could communicate to their conquerors, muſt have been both imperfect and uncertain. Like the other American nations, they were totally unacquainted with the art of writing, and deſtitute of the only means, by which the memory of paſt tranſactions can be preſerved with any degree of accuracy.

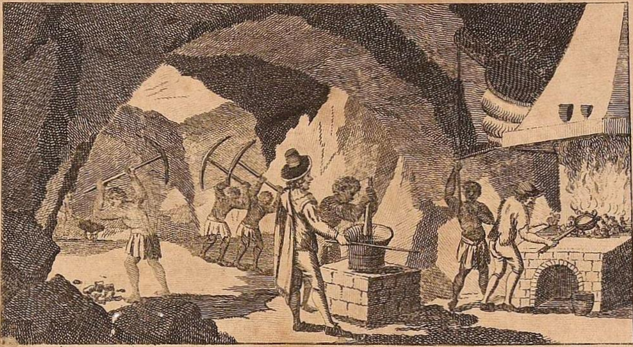
The authority of the Inca was unlimited and abſolute, in the moſt extenſive meaning of the words. Whenever the decrees of a prince are conſidered as the commands of the divinity, it is not only an act of rebellion, but of impiety, to diſpute or oppoſe his will. Obedience becomes a duty of religion; and as it would be profane to controul a monarch under the guidance of heaven, and preſumptuous to adviſe him,

him, nothing remains but to ſubmit with implicit reſpect. This muſt neceſſarily be the effect of every government eſtabliſhed on pretenſions of intercourſe with ſuperior powers. Such accordingly was the blind ſubmiſſion which the Peruvians yielded to their ſovereign.

The Incas of Peru were immenſely rich in gold and ſilver, long before they knew any thing of the rich ſilver mines of Potoſi, which were accidentally diſcovered in the year 1545, by an Indian, as he was clambering up the mountains, in purſuit of a Llama which had ſtrayed from his flock. Soon after the mines of Sacotecas in New Spain, little inferior to the other in value, were opened. From that time ſucceſſive diſcoveries have been made in both colonies, and ſilver mines are now ſo numerous, that the working of them, and of ſome few mines of gold in the province of Tierra Firmé, and the new kingdom of Granada, has become the capital occupation of the Spaniards, and is reduced into a ſyſtem no leſs complicated than intereſting.

To return: the wars, in which the Incas engaged, were carried on with a ſpirit very different from thoſe of other American nations. They fought not, like ſavages, to deſtroy and exterminate, or, like the Mexicans, to glut bloodthirſty divinities with human ſacrifices. They conquered in order to reclaim and civilize the vanquiſhed, and to infuſe the knowledge of their own inſtitutions and arts. Priſoners ſeem not to have been expoſed to the inſults and tortures, which were their lot in every other part of the New World. The Incas took the people whom they ſubdued under their protection, and admitted

p. 166.



Slaves [illegible] the Silver Mines of Peru.

mitted them to a participation of all the advantages enjoyed by their original ſubjects.

In Peru, agriculture, the art of primary neceſſity in ſocial life, was more extenſive, and carried on with greater ſkill, than in any other part of America. The Spaniards, in their progreſs through the country, were ſo fully ſupplied with proviſions of every kind, that in the relation of their adventures we meet with few of thoſe diſmal ſcenes of diſtreſs, occaſioned by famine, in which the conquerors of Mexico were ſo often involved. The quantity of ſoil under cultivation was not left to the diſcretion of individuals, but regulated by public authority, in proportion to the exigencies of the community. Even the calamity of an unfruitful ſeaſon was but little felt; for the product of the lands conſecrated to the Sun, as well as thoſe ſet apart for the Incas, being depoſited in the public ſtore-houſes, it there remained as a ſtated proviſion for times of ſcarcity.

The ingenuity of the Peruvians was alſo conſpicuous in the conſtruction of their houſes and public buildings. In the extenſive plains, which ſtretch along the Pacific Ocean, where the ſky is perpetually ſerene, and the climate mild, their houſes were very properly built only of ſlight materials; but in the higher regions, where rain falls, where the viciſſitudes of ſeaſons are known, and their rigour felt, houſes were conſtructed with greater ſolidity. They were generally of a ſquare form, the walls about eight feet high, built with bricks hardened in the Sun, without any windows, and the door low and ſtrait. Simple as theſe ſtructures were, and rude as the materials may ſeem to be, of which they

were formed, they were ſo durable, that many of them ſtill ſubſiſt in different parts of Peru, long after every monument, that might have conveyed to us any idea of the domeſtic ſtate of the other American nations, has vaniſhed from the face of the earth. It was in the temples conſecrated to the Sun, and in the buildings deſtined for the reſidence of their monarchs, that the Peruvians diſplayed the utmoſt extent of their art and contrivance. The deſcriptions of them by ſome of the Spaniſh writers, who had an opportunity of contemplating them, while, in ſome meaſure entire, might have appeared highly exaggerated, if the ruins which ſtill remain, did not vouch the truth of their relations.

The unwarlike Spirit of the Peruvians was the moſt remarkable, as well as the moſt fatal defect in their character. The greater part of the rude nations of America oppoſed their invaders with undaunted ferocity, though with little conduct or ſucceſs. The Mexicans maintained the ſtruggle in defence of their liberties with ſuch perſevering fortitude, that it was with difficulty they triumphed over them. Peru was ſubdued at once, and almoſt without reſiſtance; and the moſt favourable opportunities of regaining their freedom, and of cruſhing their oppreſſors, were loſt through the timidity of the people.

THE END.